DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 073 079 SP 006 119

AUTHOR Bennett, Roger V.
TITLE Cardinal Principles Report: An Educational Classic.
PUB DATE 72
NOTE 95p.

EDRS PRICE MF-$0.65 HC-$3.29
DESCRIPTORS *Curriculum Development; *Educational Change; *Educational History; Educational Objectives; *Evaluation; *Secondary Education
IDENTIFIERS *Cardinal Principles Report

ABSTRACT

"A Report of the Commission on Reorganization of Secondary Education" (C.R.S.E.), otherwise known as the Cardinal Principles Report, is examined in this document. Emphasis is placed on the historical origins, social and educational context, philosophical foundations, curricular implications, and evaluation of the C.R.S.E. The appendix includes the original C.R.S.E. report. Footnotes and a 20-item bibliography are included. (Author/MJM)

CARDINAL PRINCIPLES REPORT: AN EDUCATIONAL CLASSIC

by

Roger V. Bennett, Ph.D.

Department of Administration, Supervision, and Curriculum
College of Education
University of Maryland
College Park, Maryland 20740

1972

TABLE OF CONTENTS

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE CARDINAL PRINCIPLES REPORT

Officially designated, "A Report of the Commission on Reorganization of Secondary Education"[1] (C.R.S.E.), the Cardinal Principles Report is significant for at least three reasons. First, it is a document of major importance in the history of the secondary education movement of the United States. Secondly, it represents a distinct reorientation to curriculum planning. Third, it deals with many of the educational problems and issues that persist today. The philosophical and methodological means employed to cope with these problems and issues, therefore, is worthy of careful reflection.

Historical Significance

Published in 1918, the Cardinal Principles Report was formulated during a transitional period in the history of American secondary education. The age of "moderate revision" (1890-1905) was past and the era of the Progressive Education Association (1919-1950's) had not yet begun.[2] Developed during the intervening period, which had its own distinctive characteristics, the report of the C.R.S.E., summarized past traditions, compromised contemporary trends and anticipated subsequent educational developments. Recognition of the historical significance of this report prompted Cremin to write:

> Stated simply, the contribution of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education was to redefine the role of the secondary school. To the extent that in doing so the Commission was able to grasp certain new and highly significant and intellectual forces in American life, its redefinition became a lever for needed change and reform. The effects of the Cardinal Principles have been legion. Indeed it does seem amiss to argue that most of the important and influencial movements in the field since 1918 have simply been footnotes to the classic itself.[3]

Curricular Significance

Besides redefining the role of the secondary schools the Cardinal Principles has curricular significance for several other reasons. First, it reflects a shift away from the emphasis placed on individualism during the age of "moderate revision" to a new base for curriculum thinking, namely social processes. Krug describes the period during which the Cardinal Principles were formulated as a time of "anti-individualistic reaction."[4]

Secondly, the report is important because it made specific recommendations regarding the four crucial questions which must be considered in all curriculum planning. These questions are concerned with: (1) the formulation of objectives, (2) the selection of learning activities and instructional methods, (3) the organization of educational experiences and (4) evaluative techniques. The specific recommendations of the Commission will be discussed in a later portion of this review.

Thirdly, the report of the C.R.S.E. has curricular significance because it considers a wide range of controversial issues in secondary education. Among these issues are the drop out problem; individual differences; organization of the elementary, junior, and senior high school ladder; departmentalized instruction; universal secondary education; vocational guidance and education; differentiated curriculums; comprehensive vs. specialized high schools; methods of organizing and administering curriculum planning committees; the administrator's role in curriculum development; part-time and compulsory education requirements as well as the inclusion and functions of numerous so-called practical subjects.[6]

Finally, the Cardinal Principles Report has curricular significance because it represented "...a system of classifying educational objectives..." which raised the question: "Is the school responsible for all of the major areas of living?"[7]

SECONDARY EDUCATION DURING ITS ADOLESCENCE

During the first two decades of the twentieth century the public high school movement was growing out of its childhood days of private schools and academies and was rapidly approaching its adulthood where a variety of large metropolitan secondary schools prevailed. This period of transitional growth and change might well be conceived of as the adolescent years of the secondary education movement.

Physical Growth

Krug identifies the year 1890 as the beginning of a period of rapid growth in secondary education. During the short span of approximately twenty years the number of high school pupils, teachers and buildings increased at a tremendous rate. National enrollments grew from 500,000 students in 1900 to nearly 2,000,000 by 1920. During this same period the number of teachers increased nine-fold. Between 1900 and 1920 from 6,000 to 14,000 high schools were built in all regions of the United States.[8]

Referring to "changes in the secondary-school population," the Cardinal Principles report suggested some of the implications of this rapid rate of growth.

> The number of pupils has increased, according to. Federal returns, for one for every 210 of the total population in 1889-90, to one for every 89 in 1909-10, and to one for every 73 of the estimated population in 1914-15.[9]

Other dimensions of the growth taking place during these years and the overall significance of this period of rapid change are suggested by Butts and Cremin in the following statement:

> By 1918 there was little doubt that the struggle had been conclusively won. Public high schools of every kind existed throughout the Union. There were comprehensive high schools-by far the most common-vocational high schools, manual training high schools, industrial trade and commercial high schools. High school populations were clearly rising and although controversy continued, public secondary education had wide support among the American people.[10]

Changes in Character

Butts and Cremin's preceding description of the various types of high schools emerging during the early 1900's calls attention to a change in the character of secondary education during this transitional period. High schools were no longer conceived of as institutions designed largely for a population whose destinations were predominately college. Instead secondary schools were attempting to meet the diversified needs of many different adolescent groups. A growing committment to the major ideals of free, popular and universal education[11] was undoubtedly contributing to this basic character transfomation. The Cardinal Principles Report called attention to this transformation when it stated:

> The character of the secondary-school population has been modified by the entrance of large numbers of pupils of widely varying capacities, aptitudes, social

> heredity, and destinies in life. Furthermore, the broadening of the scope of secondary education has brought to the school many pupils who do not complete the full course but leave at various stages of advancement.[12]

While these changes were occurring in the nature of high schools, other forces were operating in American society which would also profoundly influence education.

Environmental Influences

Between the years 1905 and 1920 the American educational scene was dominated by three powerful social movements: social efficiency, scientific management, and vocationalism.

Social Efficiency

Social efficiency was founded on the premise that human beings achieved control over their environment primarily because they were social beings. As such they were capable of developing and utilizing social speech, thought and institutions. Like George Herbert Mead and James Baldwin, proponents of social efficiency saw thought and intelligence as essentially tools to be used to achieve a particularly desirable goal -- an efficient society. Thus, it was suggested that the schools be used to develop these tools which would not only help man adapt to his environment, but would also allow him to manipulate his environment, for his own purposes.[13]

Krug, it will be recalled, identified one of the basic characteristics of this age of social efficiency when he described it in terms of an "anti-individualistic reaction." Rejecting the stress placed on individualism during the era of the "moderate revision" of the 1890's, supporters of social efficiency emphasized

social processes.[16]

Besides reorienting the thinking about the bases of curriculum planning, this new emphasis had at least three other observable consequences in the field of education. First, the social sciences received more attention. This was due to the fact that the whole efficiency movement received much of its support from a group of highly articulate social scientists. Secondly, sociology achieved status as a legitimate discipline. Finally, the concept, as well as the term "social studies" became popular in academic circles.[15]

Advocates of social efficiency frequently represented two distinct viewpoints regarding the role of the school in society. The first can best be described by the term "social control." The second viewpoint was characterized by a more moderate "social service" orientation.

Edward Ross, author of Social Control which was published in 1901, was one of the leading spokesman for the social controlist faction. Ross believed the masses should be controlled by the leaders of society. Like most social controlists, he was motivated by a strong sense of goodness. Krug suggests this group might well be labeled "do gooders." It was their sincere intention to convert everyone to be good. Thus, education was seen as a major vehicle that could be used to achieve this end. The school was therefore considered a means of social control.[16]

Ernest Groves, a prominent sociologist during the early 1900s gave considerable support to Ross's views. Groves believed society could determine individual characteristics. He also believed

the schools could and should manipulate the immature adolescent to insure his proper development. Groves advocated the study of anthropology because he considered primitive societies good examples of the proper exercise of adequate social control.[17]

Another leading sociologist who supported social control was Charles Ellwood. He believed that compulsory education as it existed was inadequate because it was based on the arbitrary criteria of age. Age did not determine social efficiency, according to Ellwood. Therefore, he argued all children should be "sentenced" to school until the age of at least sixteen. If by that time they were unable to demonstrate a satisfactory degree of social efficiency they should be institutionalized.[18]

Undoubtedly, one of the most influencial proponents of social control was David Snedden. A former student of Ross, Snedden served as the first Commissioner of Education in Massachusetts and later became a professor of education at Teacher's College, Columbia.[19] Writing numerous articles and actively participating in the National Education Association (N.E.A.), he strongly advocated full social control through the schools.[20] One of the major responsibilities of the schools was to separate the "goats from the sheep" and to educate and prepare adolescents for their particular social and vocational roles in adult society.

Adequate preparation for these anticipated roles meant separate specialized high schools, according to Snedden. The complex technical nature of modern industrial occupations required intense and specialized training. No single comprehensive curriculum could

adequately provide the kind of training necessary for numerous specific vocational roles. Therefore, Snedden argued, students with an aptitude for railroad engineering should attend a separate specialized high school where the curriculum was exclusively designed to train railroad engineers. Only when everyone was channeled into the proper role according to his aptitude would there be a socially efficient society.[21]

Snedden, like many of his contemporaries was highly critical of the so-called traditionally academic curriculum. Instead he favored an educational program based on goals defined "...in terms of human good."[22] Typical of his denunciations of the academics was the following statement:

> We drive our boys and girls hard up the slopes of Latin, French and German, but we are forced to fall back on mystical and uncertain faiths in the endeavor to justify our driving...Seldom can we measure tangible results of our teaching.[23]

Although he was particularily vehement in his attacks on Latin, it should not be inferred that Snedden was opposed to subject matter per se. Rather he believed that the traditional academic subjects should be replaced by more practical courses of study.[24]

Like Snedden, but considerably more moderate in their approach, the advocates of social service also considered the school a social agency. However, emphasis was placed on service and not on control. One of the major responsibilities of the school therefore, was to provide the community with needed social services. The neighborhood school social-center appeared to be a direct expression of idea.

Impetus for this notion of community service stemmed primarily from two sources: the rise of social work and the settlement house movement. The acceptance of social work as a respectable profession in the early years of the twentieth century did much to advance the idea of community service.[25] Beginning in the 1890's the settlement house movement provided the spark for the idea of social service. It is significant to note that it was during this period that John Dewey, then at the University of Chicago, became associated with Jane Addams founder of Hull House. This association was undoubtedly the source of many of Dewey's ideas regarding the school's role in society. Jane Dewey-Jane Addam's namesake, wrote about this relationship in 1939 and stated:

> Dewey's faith in democracy as a guiding force in education took on both a sharper and deeper meaning because of Hull House and Jane Addams.[26]

John Dewey identified himself with the social efficiency movement when he wrote in Democracy and Education, "One of the major aims of the school is social efficiency."[27] Considering his support for the idea of school social centers and his association with Jane Addams, Dewey must be classified on the social service side of the efficiency movement. Although he occasionally leaned toward social control he definitely cannot be associated with the extreme Snedden-Elwood position.[28] While it is not feasible to explore all the aspects of Dewey's philosophy of education within the scope of this review, it is important to recognize that many of his ideas did represent the social service side of the efficiency movement.

Dewey's interpretation of the role of the school in relation to this movement was considerably diff from that of many of his contemporaries. Examination of some of his views indicates he stood in marked contrast to Ross, Snedden, Ellwood and other social controlists. Such a contrast is evident in the following statement in which Dewey said:

> ...social efficiency is nothing less than the socialization of mind which is actively concerned in making experiences more communicable, in breaking down the barriers of social stratification which make individuals impervious to the interests of others.[29]

This statement seemed to be in direct conflict with Ross's idea that the masses shoul be controlled by their social leaders. It also appeared to turn the controlists hierarchy of values upside down. Instead of viewing the school as a means of insuring social efficiency Dewey seemed to be advocating that social efficiency be used as a means for improving education. Commenting on the educational value of social efficiency Dewey wrote:

> But social efficiency as an educational purpose should mean cultivation of power to join freely and fully in shared on common activities.[30]

Social efficiency, according to Dewey did not mean that everyone should be educated for a particular set of social roles, but rather it meant the "cultivation of power."

Dewey did not accept the idea of external control or regulation of the educative process as the best means of achieving a socially efficient society. Instead he argued that:

> Control, in truth, means only an emphatic form of direction of powers, and covers the regulation

> gained by an individual through his own efforts quite as much as that brought about when others take the lead.[31]

For Dewey the ultimate goal of education was simply more education. It was a process of continuous reconstruction of experiences, an idea which "...is marked off from education as preparation for a remote future..."[32].

Dewey's thoughts on education encompassed both the emphasis placed on the individual during the era of "moderate revision" and the concern for social processes which emerged during the social efficiency movement. The educational process, according to Dewey had two sides: the psychological and the sociological.

> Education, therefore, must begin with a psychological insight into the child's capacities, interests and habits....These powers, interests and habits must be continually interpreted. They must be translated into terms of their social equivalents -- into terms of what they are capable of in the way of social service.[33]

Even though he rejected the extreme anti-individualistic reaction of many of his contemporaries, Dewey may still be identified with the social efficiency movement.

Schools were essentially social institutions in Dewey's opinion and education was basically a social process. Therefore, he argued the school should be designed as a minature community representing "...present life as real and vital to the child."[34] The ideal school, according to Dewey, would be an embryonic community life alive with activities that reflected occupations of the larger society.[35] Here was the idea behind Dewey's "activities program."

Cognizant of the changing environment in industrial America, Dewey believed education had to be open-ended. Its purpose should be neither to conserve a received tradition, nor produce a new society according to some prescribed blueprint. Rather education had to provide the means for selecting from the best impulses of people and in doing so help society move along the lines of the most promising direction.[36] This type of social service could best be provided for through an open-ended educational process. Thus he argued:

> A society which is mobile, which is full of channels for the distribution of a change occurring anywhere, must see to it that its members are educated to personal initiative and adaptability. Otherwise, they will be overwhelmed by the changes in which they are caught and whose significance or connections they do not perceive.[37]

Complimenting this conception of education as an open ended process was Dewey's "problem-solving approach." This implied that the exact outcomes of any educational experience were never certain. True learning emerged through a process of reflective thinking which began with a problem and proceeded to explore, hypothesize, and test various solutions to that problem.[38] Since the outcomes could never be completely anticipated it might be argued that Dewey would reject the idea of social control on the grounds that he could never be sure what he was controlling for.

Equally important to Dewey's philosophy of education was his committment of the democratic way of life. Throughout Democracy and Education, he continually emphasized the importance of a cooperative sharing of common aims, common beliefs, common attitudes and

experiences. Typical of this committment was the following statement:

> In order to have a large number of values in common all the members of the group must have an equable opportunity to receive and take from others. There must be a large variety of shared undertakings and experience...[39]

Butts and Cremin summarized Dewey's committment to democratic principles when they stated, "Dewey made the democratic ideal and democratic way of life the fundamental for his whole conception of education."[40]

Like the social controlists, Dewey also attacked the traditional concept of subject matter. However, his attack, unlike that of Snedden, was not aimed at eliminating any particular so-called "academic courses." Dewey was instead concerned about the traditional methods and rigid classifications and isolation of subjects. He argued that individual subjects should not be used to train one or even a set of faculties. Rather the whole child functioning in a complete and unified environment was the proper course of study.[41] Thus, he wrote:

> Isolation of subject matter from a social context is the chief obstruction in current practice to securing a general training of mind.[42]

Subjects were not ends in themselves but rather beginning points for Dewey. He was not interested in doing away with traditional courses of study, but rather he favored recreating the curriculum to develop new subject matter.[43]

Thus, it seemed that while the leaders of the two branches of the social efficiency movement disagreed about whether education

should be reorganized for the purposes of social control or social service, they did share an anti-academic bias.[44] Both factions were opposed to the traditional curriculum founded on so-called "academic" subjects. However, it is important to recognize that this bias was not against all subject matter.

Scientific Management

Additional support for this bias came from the scientific management movement which also developed during the early decades of the twentieth century. Like social efficiency this movement exercised considerable influence in academic circles. Krug indicates that the development of scientific management encouraged more anti-academic bias than any other single force.[45]

Orginating in the time study movement in the tailor industry, scientific management was soon applied to educational planning. Unfortunately, the basic concepts of this movement suffered a two-fold distortion in the hands of zealous curriculum workers. The first distortion resulted when educators inferred that when scientific management was applied to curriculum evaluation it raised the question: How good are these particular subjects? While this inference was not in itself harmful it did lead to a second distortion. Once the initial question had been raised curriculum workers made an ideological jump which prompted them to ask such questions as: Does arithmetic produce good citizens? or Does Latin produce vocationally efficient people? Many traditional subject-matter specialists were forced to admit they lacked the basic data to support an affirmative answer to this query.

One result was the development of a strong anti-academic bias.

Spreading quickly, this bias prompted educators to challenge all academic subjects to prove their right to exist. Each subject was asked to justify its presence in the curriculum and to do so in relation to the goals of social efficiency. Thus, such subjects as Latin, Greek, and ancient history were asked to either prove that they contributed to good citizenship and vocational efficiency or get out of the curriculum.

Confronted with such a seemingly impossible challenge, many academicians developed ingenious justifications for their particular subject. Any opportunity which offered such justifications was quickly seized. One such opportunity presented itself when the supporters of scientific management expressed concern over the eight hour working day. Obviously there was great danger in workers having an excess of leisure and recreation time. As a result preparation for the socially efficient use of leisure time became a responsibility of the school. Subjects now could justify their presence in the curriculum on the basis of their ability to contribute to the efficient use of leisure time.[46]

Vocationalism

Vocationalism actually began as early as 1876 when the industrial supremacy of the United States was seriously challenged for the first time at the Philadelphia Centennial Exposition. From the beginning, the relation of education to national progress had been a major theme of the Centennial. Much to the surprise of many Americans,

a few displays from Russia dominated the show. What happened in effect was that these displays showed the West that Russian educators had scored an important breakthrough regarding the problem of organizing meaningful, instructive manual training.[47]

From this inception the movement toward vocational education grew rapidly. By the late 1870's the N.E.A. had become an arena for debate concerning manual training.[48] The 1890's witnessed a rapid growth of manual training and homemaking courses in secondary schools. It was also during the 1890's that the trade school idea emerged.[49] The year 1910 proved to be the turning point in the vocational education movement, according to Cremin. Twenty-nine states were then sponsoring some form of industrial education.[50]

Support for the movement came from labor through the American Federation of Labor (A.F.L.), from agriculture via the Grange and from manufacturers through the National Association of Manufacturers.[51] Such support as this led to the formation of the Commission on National Aid to Vocational Education in 1914. This group strongly recommended that federal funds be used to support teachers and supervisors of trade, industrial and agricultural subjects at the secondary level. Finally, in 1917, the Smith-Hughes Act was passed by Congress and federal aid to vocational secondary education was approved.[52]

Dewey suggested five reasons for this rapid rise of vocational education in America. First, there was an increased esteem in democratic societies for manual labor. Second, vocational occupations acquired new prestige. Third, industry based on skilled technology replaced the previous rule of thumb method which had been handed down

from one generation to the next. Fourth, the pursuit of knowledge, particularly in science, became more experimental and less dependent upon literary tradition. Fifth, advances in the psychology of learning fell into line with the increased importance of industry in American life.[53]

Krug suggests vocationalism had its most dramatic impact on secondary education as a result of Douglas's Report of 1905. This report of the governor's commission in Massachusetts focused attention on 25,000 students between the ages of 14 and 16 who dropped out of elementary school and were unemployed or employed in dead-end jobs. The commission concluded that the reason these students had left school was because the educational program had failed to provide them with an adequate practical preparation for life. This of course implied vocational education. Copies of this report were widely circulated throughout the United States. Krug indicates this report was the highlight of the vocational movement and suggests that its impact on education was comparable to that of Sputnik in 1954.[54]

Vocationalism supported the educational demands of the social efficiency and scientific management movements in two ways. First, those who favored vocational education attacked the traditional academic subjects. Second, they called for a more practical curriculum designed to prepare youth for everyday living, including of course, vocational responsibility.

Inspite of the insistence of these leaders to the contrary, it became apparent around 1910 that many of the pupils entering the high school still preferred the traditional academic subjects. Conceding

to these demands the supporters of vocationalism pushed for differentiated curriculums in the high school. A two track system was advocated. One track, with a vocational emphasis, would be designed for pupils who saw high school as terminal education. The other track, with an academic flavor, would be intended for those students preparing for college. It was recommended that such a differentiation begin as early as fifth grade or at least no later than seventh grade. Unfortunately much of the dualism which resulted when certain subjects were labeled college preparation and others vocational subjects still remains today.

Evidence of the general unity of thought among the supporters of vocationalism and social efficiency can be found in a brief examination of the early career of Charles Prosser. As an educational leader during the years 1910 to 1920, Prosser served in two important positions. Initially he was an Assistant Commissioner of Education in Massachusetts under David Snedden. Subsequently he became the Secretary of the National Society for the Promotion of Vocational Education. Undoubtedly, he achieved his greatest prominence many years later when he proposed the now famous Prosser Resolution of 1945 which ushered in the life adjustment movement. Nevertheless, it is significant to note that during the early 1900's he was an example of those who brought together the ideas of social efficiency and vocationalism.[56]

Reformism

During these early years of the twentieth century, physical growth and changes in the character of secondary education along with

social efficiency, scientific management and vocationalism combined to create an atmosphere charged with demands for educational reform. Dworkin refers to the educational changes that were promoted during this period as part of "...a nationwide comprehensive reform movement."[57] May asserts that the whole culture of this era was "...a fundamentally unstable compound. It called for questioning ideas and institutions."[58] Krug concurs when he describes this age as one wherein the intellectual atmosphere was dominated by a general feeling of reform and a desire of social improvement.[59] Perhaps the most detailed analysis of this general trend toward reform is contained in the following statement:

> Dewey's criticisms of traditional educational theory and practice were part of a general and various movement of revolt. Other kinds of psychologists were finding current methods inadequate; businessmen and farmers were calling classical education useless; worried citizens were demanding that the schools take on more boldly the job of assimilating the imigrants, efficiency experts and social scientists were bringing forward precise proposals.[60]

Reflecting the anti-academic bias engendered by social efficiency, scientific management and vocationalism, numerous writers of this period called for educational reform. Among these are George Santayana who in 1912 labeled past American idealism, "The Genteel Tradition" and argued that:

> ...the academic philosophies of 1911 were completely out of touch with the busy, practical American mind. These philosophies had become an elegant pastime instead of a guide to life.[61]

Another article which appeared in the Saturday Evening Post, March 9, 1912 reflected this same practicalist attack on traditional education when it asked:

> ...how long will our medieval high schools be dominated by the believers in that snobbish, useless, indefinable concept--culture? ...When will the high school start teaching men how to get jobs and women how to keep house?[62]

Undoubtedly, one of the most comprehensive expressions of reformism was made by George Strayer at the National Education Association proceedings in June 1918. Because Strayer's remarks were made in 1918 they reflected many of the major themes incorporated in educational reform movement. Echoing the prevailing disenchantment with the traditional conception of education, Strayer expressed concern about "...certain alarming deficiencies in our scheme of secondary education."[63] Similar to many modern day reformists Strayer substantiated his fears by pointing out that:

> American boys and girls of eighteen years of age are approximately two years behind their European contemporaries in intellectual training.

Reflecting one of the major themes of the vocational movement he continued by calling for "...differentiated courses of study in the intermediate schools" (refers to junior high schools). According to Strayer, such courses should:

> ...provide not only for those who go on through high school and college, but also for those who are to go into commerce and industry.

Emphasizing the practical orientation of social efficiency, scientific management and vocationalism Strayer urged:

> A very much larger provision should be made in the household arts, including cooking, sewing, millinary, dressmaking, designing, household decoration, for girls, who make their greatest contribution along these lines.

Pursuing this same logic, which seemed to reflect views of David Snedden and other social controlists, he continued, "An attempt should also be made to find similar abilities and discover aptitudes of boys."

Continuing in the reformist vein, Strayer argued that courses needed to be revised, "...so as to provide in them some definite relationship to the everyday experience and work." This idea of revising courses rather than eliminating them seemed to come close to Dewey's philosophy of "recreating the curriculum." Nothing is lost in teaching mathematics which can be used in the shop or science which is related to our everyday life," argued Strayer.

Concluding his remarks Strayer advised, "Schools must keep up with modern needs...We must provide reorganization..."[64]

Considering the changes that had occurred in secondary education and the influence of social efficiency, scientific management and vocationalism, it appears that Strayer had summarized the trend toward educational reform. Furthermore, looking back, his remarks also seemed to provide considerable justification for the work of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education (C.R.S.E.)

OVERVIEW OF THE C.R.S.E.

Understanding the direction taken by this commission requires some knowledge of its origin, sponsorship, organization and most important of all, the members of the main reviewing committee.

Origin, Sponsorship, and Organization of the Commission

Officially organized in 1913, the commission was a direct outgrowth of the 1911 N.E.A. committee on the articulation of high school and college.[65] In its report this committee attempted to redefine the function of the secondary school. It recommended the modification of college entrance requirements so that the high school could adjust its program to meet the needs of all students without closing to them opportunities for continued higher learning.[66] The recognition of the high school as an institution that should serve both college-bound and non-college bound students implied a need for further reorganization. This need led directly to the creation of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education.

Sponsored by the National Education Association (N.E.A.) and the U. S. Office of Education, the commission was organized into seventeen committees. Sixteen of these committees were responsible for issuing reports dealing with the general organization and administration of secondary school as well as the aims, methods, and content of specific courses of study. The seventeenth committee, designated as the main reviewing committee, was responsible for evaluating the work of the other committees, holding annual meetings, conducting correspondence and outlining" ...in one brief report those fundamental principles that would be most helpful in directing secondary education."[67]

Members of the Reviewing Committees

Charged with these responsibilities, the reviewing committee was composed of the sixteen committee chairmen, a general chairman and

ten members at large. This committee was unusual in at least four respects. First, as a group, it represented an extremely diversified collection of professional interests and backgrounds. Included in this group were: a state high supervisor, the United States Commissioner of Education, six professors of education from various colleges and universities, a representative of the New York City Ethical Culture School, two representatives of the international Y.M.C.A., a principal of a technical high school, a dean of the Cleveland School of Art, two high school classroom teachers, two representatives of the United States Bureau of Education, a director of music and an associate superintendent of schools.[68]

Second, this reviewing committee had the unique distinction of being the first national group to be headed by a relatively unknown former classroom teacher. Clarence Kingsley, the general chairman was the first man to step into such a position directly from the classroom. Kingsley was formerly a mathematics teacher at the Boy's Technical High School in Brooklyn.[69] He achieved some prominence because of his tireless efforts as the chairman of the N.E.A.'s 1911 committee on the articulation of the high school and college. It was because of his outstanding work on this earlier committee that he became chairman of the reviewing committee of the C.R.S.E.[70] More will be said about this unusual man in subsequent portions of this review.

Third, this reviewing committee was unusual because even though it included six professors, none of these men represented any of the traditional academic disciplines. Instead all six were professors of education.

Fourth, this revieving committee was unusual because of its obvious shortage of classroom representatives. Although the commission was primarily concerned with the reorganization of secondary education there were only two secondary classroom teachers on the reviewing committee. It must be acknowledged however, that there were other representatives of secondary education on this committee, e.g. Clarence Kingsley and the two high school principals. Nevertheless, there were only two classroom teachers.

Inspite of their diversified backgrounds and the unusual characteristics of this group, the reviewing committee was able to accomplish a number of noteworthy achievements. Without a doubt, the most significant accomplishment of all was the creation of the Cardinal Principles Report.

ANALYSIS OF THE CARDINAL PRINCIPLES REPORT

Earlier in this review it was suggested that the Cardinal Principles Report had curricular significance because it represented a shift in the basic approach to curriculum planning. Analysis of this report would not be complete without an understanding of the particular approach taken by the C.R.S.E

Curricular Approach of the C.R.S.E.

Herrick indicated there are only three basic referents or orientations possible to consider in the development of curriculum patterns. These three referents are: (1) man's organized knowledge which is preserved in the various subject fields, (2) society with its institutions and social processes and (3) the individual with

his own unique needs, interests, abilities and developmental patterns.[71]

Consideration of these three basic referents-subject matter, society and the individual- leads inevitably to the critical question of priority. Any approach to curriculum planning must consider all three referents. It is never a question of which one to consider. Rather a far more complex problem arises when it becomes necessary to arrange the three referents in some priority of importance. Curriculum approaches differ from one another only in the way in which they order subject matter, society and the individual. Like all curriculum planning groups the reviewing committee of the C.R.S.E. was faced with the problem of deciding which of these referents it was going to emphasize.

Basically, there are only three distinct approaches to curriculum planning: (1) the subject-centered approach, (2) the society-centered approach and (3) the individual-oriented approach.[72] Deciding where to place the emphasis is largely a matter of value judgement. Just as it is true of all other curriculum planning groups, the approach used by the C.R.S.E. was supported by a particular concept of the schools function in society, a particular philosophy of education and a specific viewpoint regarding the interaction between the learner, the situation and the teacher during the learning process.

Surveying the Cardinal Principles Report it appears that the three basic referent were consistently arranged in a definite priority of importance. The first sentence of the report was indicative of that priority. It reads as follows:

> Secondary education should be determined by the needs of the society to be served, the character of the individuals to be educated and the knowledge of educational theory and practice available.[73]

Judging from this introduction it appears that the C.R.S.E. had adopted a society-centered curricular approach. While this single statement cannot be considered conclusive proof by itself, it can be recognized as an indication of the commission's basic approach.

Besides this initial statement there seems to be at least four other indications that the Cardinal Principles Report was written from a society-centered orientation. First, the members of the reviewing committee were undoubtedly influenced by the existing educational climate. It will be recalled that the general tenor of the atmosphere between 1915 and 1918 laid heavy emphasis on social processes and societial needs. Furthermore, the existing anti-academic bias of social efficiency, scientific management and vocationalism appeared to discourage the use of subject matter as the primary referent in curriculum planning. In addition, it will be remembered that the proposals of educational reformists were primarily motivated by a felt need to keep pace with a changing society. It must also be recognized that while educators like Snedden and Dewey considered the individual in their writings, it was usually in relation to the more important referent-society. Since the members of the C.R.S.E. lived in this climate it seems reasonable to assert that it did influence their thinking.

Second, the priority of values which characterizes the society-centered approach was clearly in evidence in the first section of the Cardinal Principles Report. Discussing the need for

reorganization the report directed attention first to change in society, second to the nature of the high school students and finally to new knowledge in educational theory.[74]

Third, further investigation of subsequent sections of the report revealed numerous references to such terms as "society," "democracy," "democratic society" and "community." Cursory examination indicated there were less frequent references to such terms as the: "individual," "student" or "pupil." There appeared to be sill fewer references to terms or ideas directly related to subject matter.

Fourth, specific recommendations mady by the C. R. S. E. regarding four major curriculum questions appear to be indicative of a society-centered approach. It will be recalled that earlier in this paper these four major questions were defined as being concerned with (1) the formulation of objectives, (2) the selection of learning activities and irstructional methods, (3) the organization of educational experiences and (4) evaluative techniques.

Recommendations Regarding Major Curriculum Questions

Regarding the formulation of objectives the C.R.S.E. recommended that the activities of the individual be analyzed in order to determine appropriate aims for education. Using an approach which Bobbitt and Charters subsequently adopted, the reviewing committee proceeded to examine various activities involved in an individual's social roles as: a citizen, a worker, an independent personality, a member of a family and a member of a vocational group.[75] The specific skills and

personal attributes required by each of these roles led the committee to recommend the following as the main objectives of education: (1) Health, (2) Command of fundamental processes, (3) Worthy home-membership, (4) Vocation, (5) Citizenship, (6) Worthy use of leisure and (7) Ethical character.[76]

Following the discussion of how these objectives were formulated, the reviewing committee devoted five additional sections of the Cardinal Principles Report to: (1) the role of secondary education in achieving these objectives,[77] (2) the interrelation of the objectives in secondary education,[78] (3) the recognition of the objectives in reorganizing high school subjects,[79] (4) the recognition of the objectives in planning curriculums[80] and (5) the recognition of the objectives in organizing the school.[81]

Judging from the discussions within each of these sections it appears that there was a great deal of importance attached to the seven "main objectives of education." It seems that these aims were considered much more than merely mastheads. There were several specific recommendations in the Cardinal Principles Report regarding the function and importance of these objectives that are noteworthy, e.g.:

> ...they should constitute the principal aims of education...[82]
>
> The objectives outlined above apply to education as a whole-elementary, secondary higher.[83]
>
> Each subject now taught in high schools is in need of extensive reorganization in order that it may contribute effectively to the objectives outlined.[84]

> No curriculum in the secondary school can be regarded as satisfactory unless it gives due attention to each of the objectives...[85]

> The objectives must determine the organization...[86]

> ...objectives outlined herein are adopted as the controlling aims of education.[87]

One final observation regarding the seven main objectives should be noted. Through various discussions the reviewing committee strongly emphasized the social implications of specific aims. Several examples may be cited. One such example was found in the discussion of the first major objective of "health." The Cardinal Principles Report indicated that health needs could not be neglected "...without serious danger to the individual and to the race."[88] This statement not only called attention to the obvious values health has for the individual, but it also related this particular aim to the welfare of all society.

Another example of the emphasis placed on the social implications of the main objectives was revealed in the discussion of "worthy-home membership." It was recommended that:

> The social studies should deal with the home as a fundamental social institution and clarify its relation to the wider interests outside.[89]

Still another example of how the seven aims were related to society in general was found in the discussion of the vocational objective. The reviewing committee declared:

> Vocational education should equip the individual to secure a livelihood for himself...to serve society well through his vocation, to maintain right relationships toward his fellow workers and society.[90]

Numerous other examples were also evident in subsequent discussions of civic education and the worthy use of leisure. All of these examples seemed to indicate that the reviewing committees had adopted a society-centered approach toward the formulation and use of objectives.

Relative to the second major curriculum question, concerning the selection of learning activities and instructional methods, the committee made several recommendations. First, it was recommended that activities, methods and subject matter be selected on the basis of their ability to develop: (1) desirable social attitudes, (2) knowledge about social institutions and (3) necessary social skills. The section of the Cardinal Principles Report which dealt with civic education was replete with examples indicative of this recommendation. Some of the specific statements found in this section of the report are as follows:

> For such citizenship the following are essential: A many sided interest in the welfare of the communities to which one belongs.[91]
>
> ...practical knowledge of social agencies...[92]
>
> ...cordial cooperation in social undertakings...[93]
>
> ...assignment of projects and problems to groups of pupils for cooperative solution and the socialized recitation...[94]
>
> ...all subjects should contribute to good citizenship, the social studies-geography, history, civics and economics-should have this as their dominant aim.[95]
>
> Civics...should direct attention to social agencies close at hand.[96]
>
> The work in English should kindle social ideals...[97]

Other sections of the Cardinal Principles Report indicated that the reviewing

committee's recommendations regarding the selection of activities, methods and content were directed from a society-oriented approach. Particularly relevant were the sections of the report which dealt with: the unifying function of secondary education's differentiated curriculums, the comprehensive high school and secondary education essential for all youth.[98]

Numerous recommendations were made by the reviewing committee in regard to the third major curriculum question, which deals with the organization of educational experiences. These recommendations were concerned with two levels of organization: (1) the overall organization of the educational ladder[99] and (2) the organization of the high school program.[100]

Concerning the overall organization of the educational ladder the committee made three specific recommendations. First, it recommended a complete reorganization of the entire school system. The traditional pattern of eight years of elementary schooling and four years of high school should be changed to a pattern of six years for elementary and six years for secondary education.[101]

Second, it was recommended that the six years devoted to secondary education be organized into two periods "...designated as the junior and senior periods."[102] The rationale for this organization was expressed in the Cardinal Principles Report as follows:

> Individual differences in pupils and the varied needs of society alike demand that education be so varied as to touch the leading aspects of occupational, civic and leisure life. To this end the curriculums must be organized at appropriate stages and the work of pupils progressively differentiated.[103]

Third, the Cardinal Principles Report implied another recommendation regarding the organization of education at all levels. Although this was not an explicitly stated recommendation it did appear that the reviewing committee felt all three levels of education should be organized on the bases of the seven main objectives of education. Two statements seemed to suggest this implied recommendation. These statements were as follows:

> The objectives outlined above apply to education as a whole--elementary, secondary and higher.[104]

> The objectives must determine the organization or else the organization will determine the objectives[105]

It must be acknowledged that the second statement was used in the Cardinal Principles Report in reference to the internal organization of the high school program. However, it seems reasonable to assume that the reviewing committee would apply the same principle to the overall organization of the entire educational ladder.

All three of these recommendations regarding the reorganization of the whole educational system were based on the expressed desire to meet both the needs of society and the individual. It is significant to note that the rationale behind these recommendations emphasized the individual as well as society. In some instances it even appeared that the individual may have been the primary referent.

Discussing the organization of the high school program the reviewing committee recommended the following: comprehensive secondary schools; differentiated curricular tracks; school guidance; a wide range of subjects to be broken down into constants; variables and free electives; election by curriculum tracks; and the adaptation of

content and methods to pupil interest, needs and capacities.[106] These recommendations were derived primarily from two related beliefs.

First, the Cardinal Principles Report stated that the high school should serve the needs of all pupils regardless of their backgrounds or destinations. This belief was clearly expressed in the following statement:

> Consequently, we recommend that secondary schools admit, and provide suitable instruction for all pupils who are in any respect so mature that they would derive more benefit from the secondary school than from the elementary school.[107]

Second, the report declared that the high school should serve two basic functions: specialization and unification. Specialization meant organizing the program in such a way as to help individuals "...become effective in the various vocations and other fields of human endeavor."[108] Unification implied the type of organization that would assist members of a democracy obtain:

> those common ideas, common ideals and common modes of thought, feeling and action that make for cooperation, social cohesion and social solidarity.[109]

Again, it is significant to note the basic referent in both of these beliefs. In the former the emphasis appeared to be clearly on the individual. In the latter there seemed to be a dual referent- the individual and society.

Another recommendation made by the committee, which seemed to have an indirect bearing on the organization of the high school program should be noted. It was recommended that:

> ...education should be so reorganized that every normal boy and girl will be encouraged to remain in school to the age of 18, on full time if possible, otherwise on part time.[110]

This statement had two implications for any organizational plan. It meant the educational program would have to be organized to meet the needs of more pupils who would remain in school for a longer period of time. It also implied a curriculum flexible enough to provide for part time as well as full time students who remain in school until the age of eighteen. The committee recommended an organization of subject matter that would meet the needs of early drop-outs. The Cardinal Principles Report stated:

> ...each subject should be so organized that the first year of work will be of definite value to those who go on further; and this principle should be applied to the work of each year.[111]

Besides these recommendations, it was also proposed that a principal's council be established in the high school. Essentially, this council was to be responsible for studying and organizing various school activities so as to maximize their contributions to the seven main objectives. It was recommended that the council be made of teachers who would perform the duties associated with the following roles: a health director, a citizenship director, various curriculum directors (one for each track in the comprehensive high school), a director of vocational and educational guidance, and a director in charge of preparation of leisure. Finally, it was recommended that the principal appoint various teacher committees to assist the council in its work.[112]

Examination of the Cardinal Principles Report reveals no explicitly stated recommendations pertaining to the fourth major curriculum question, which deals with evaluative techniques. However,

at least one general inference may be drawn from a summary of the other recommendations made by the reviewing committee. Summarized briefly, these recommendations indicated that the committee supported the following:

1. A society-centered curriculum approach.
2. Seven main objectives for all education.
3. The selection of activities and methods which would support and contribute to the major aims.
4. A comprehensive and flexible organization of educational experiences designed to accomplish the seven key objectives.

One might infer from these beliefs that the committee recommended evaluative techniques which used the seven aims as a frame of reference for appraisal. The following statement taken from the Cardinal Principles Report seems to support this inference:

> No curriculum in the secondary school can be regarded as satisfactory unless it gives due attention to each of the objectives of education...[113]

Real and Hidden Authors of the Report

Much has been written about the recommendations of the main reviewing committee of the C.R.S.E. Perhaps the continuous reference to this group has been somewhat misleading. It could easily be inferred that the Cardinal Principles Report reflected only the views of the seventeen members of this committee. Such an interpretation is not completely accurate because many others also contributed ideas. Those who were actually responsible for writing the final report might be

called its real authors. Those whose ideas constituted a reservior of cultural heritage which these men drew upon might be called the hidden authors of this document.

Clarence Kingsley was the chief architect of the Cardinal Principles Report. Serving as the general chairman of the C.R.S.E. he drew ideas from three related sources. First, he relied on many of his own views. Second, he utilized the ideas of his contemporaries. Third, he borrowed from the traditions of the past.

Kingsley's own views of education developed from his experiences as a social worker in New York and mathematics teacher in a technical high school.[114] Undoubtedly, many of these ideas were tempered by the social efficiency, scientific management and vocational movements.

Many of the recommendations included in the Cardinal Principles Report can be directly attributed to Kingsley. Speaking at the N.E.A. in 1914, he identified seven general problems confronting the C.R.S.E. These problems were as follows: (1) the ambiguous terminology of secondary education, (2) the construction of a general and vocational curriculum, (3) the articulation of these two curriculums, (4) the extension of secondary education downward to youth of twelve years of age, (5) concentration in the work of the individual pupil, (6) spontaneous activities to develop appreciation and (7) the needs of small high schools.[115] Discussing these issues, Kingsley made several recommendations which were later incorporated into the Cardinal Principles Report.

Regarding the construction of a general and vocational curriculum, Kingsley recommended:

> ...the general curriculum should furnish those common elements of education needed by all members of society whatever their vocational choice...and it should help the pupil choose his vocation...and should provide electives whereby each pupil may secure elements of culture along the line of his special abilities.[116]

It is significant to note that the Cardinal Principles Report favored differentiated curriculum tracks which were to be determined largely on the basis of vocational interests and needs. It also should be noted that the report advocated "pupil election by tracks as well as elective subjects.[117] Furthermore, it was stated that:

> ...this commission enters its protest against any and all plans, however well intended, which are in danger of divorcing vocation and socio-civic education.[118]

Referring to subject matter, Kingsley declared:

> The place occupied by each of the high school subjects...will depend largely on the degree to which those familiar with that subject demonstrate its value in reaching the ends of general education.[119]

Note the similarity to the following statement taken from the Cardinal Principles Report.

> Each subject now taught in high schools is in need of extensive reorganization in order that it may contribute more effectively to the objectives outlined herein, and the place of that subject in secondary education should depend upon the value of such contribution.[120]

Another example of the direct relationship between Kingsley's views and the recommendations put forth in the Cardinal Principles Report may be seen in the following comparison. Kingsley stated:

> In planning each subject in the general curriculum, it is important that the pupil who takes one year of a subject shall secure tangible results, that the pupil taking two years shall spend time to the utmost advantage and at the same time lay a satisfactory foundation for work that may follow.[121]

The Cardinal Principles Report expressed the same idea by declaring:

> ...each subject should be so organized that the first year of work will be of definite value to those who go no further; and this principle should be applied to the work of each year.[122]

Numerous other comparisons could be made. However, for the purposes of this paper it suffices to say that Clarence Kingsley was perhaps the most influencial of all the real authors of the Cardinal Principles Report.

Regarding the hidden authors of this document, it appears that Kingsley utilized the ideas of at least two of his contemporaries: John Dewey and David Snedden. Many of the statements made in the Cardinal Principles Report seemed to reflect some of the basic notions of these two men.

Considering the impact of Dewey's work, May asserted that:

> Dewey's influence can be seen clearly...in the 1913 report of the National Education Association's Committee on the Reorganization of Secondary Education.[123]

The following comparisons seem to lend support to May's assertion. For the sake of brevity the letters C.P.R. will be used to refer to the Cardinal Principles Report.

I. (C.R.P.) "This commission holds that education is essentially unitary and continuous process..."[124]
(Dewey) "...the educative process is a continuous process of growth, having as its aim at every stage an added capacity of growth."[125]

II. (C.P.R.) "Education in the United States should be guided by a clear conception of the meaning of democracy."126
(Dewey) Title of his book Democracy and Education, is indicative of Dewey's belief in an educational system based on democratic ideas. Further evidence may also be found in Chapter seven of this same book. Dewey stresses the importance of a clear conception of democracy as a base for a sound educational program.

III. (C.P.R.) "Home membership as an objective should not be thought of solely with reference to future duties. These are better guaranteed if the school helps the pupils to take the right attitude toward present home responsibilities."128
(Dewey) "It is not of course a question of whether education should prepare for the future. If education is growth it must progressively realize present possibilities, and thus make individual better fitted to cope with later requirements."129

IV. (C.P.R.) "Vocational education should aim to develop an appreciation of the significance of the vocation to the community and a clear conception of right relations between the members of a chosen vocation, between different vocational groups, between employer and employee."130
(Dewey) "...discovery of the relations of a man to his work-including his relations to others who take part-which will enlist his intelligent interest in what he is doing. Efficiency in production often demands division of labor. But it is reduced to a mechanical routine unless workers see the technical, intellectual and social relationships involved in what there is..."131

While it is tempting to accept these comparisons as proof of May's assertion, there are several arguments which caution against such a temptation. First, simply because there are similarities, this does not establish a cause and effect linkage between Dewey and the Cardinal Principles Report. Second, many ideas attributed to Dewey were also expressed by others. Therefore, it is extremely difficult to determine which source of ideas the commission used. Third, many writers tend to exaggerate Dewey's influence because of his prominence. Fourth, many of Dewey's key ideas are noticeably absent from the report of the C.R.S.E. Earlier in this review it was pointed out that Dewey

strongly advocated the "problem solving approach," the "activities program" and the process of "reflective thinking." There is very little evidence of any of these distinctly Deweyian concepts in the Cardinal Principles Report. Finally, it should be noted that this document reflected many of David Snedden's ideas, which were in basic disagreement with much of Dewey's philosophy.

Snedden, like Dewey was one of the prominent educators of the era of the C.R.S.E.[1] Therefore, it may also be asserted that he too influenced the thinking of this commission. It is significant to note that Clarence Kingsley, chairman of the C.R.S.E., worked under Snedden in the Massachusetts state department.[132]

Analysis of the Cardinal Principles Report reveals several statements which are indicative of the basic position held by Snedden. It will be recalled that earlier in this paper Snedden was identified as advocating "an educational program based on goals defined in terms of human good."[133] There can be little doubt that the Cardinal Principles Report stood squarely behind such a program. Aims such as, worthy use of leisure, citizenship, worthy home membership and ethical character are clear examples of "goals defined in terms of human good."

Another statement taken from the Cardinal Principles Report which was suggestive of Snedden is as follows:

> ...that the individual choose that vocation and those forms of social service in which his personality may develop and become most effective.[134]

Disregarding the phrase "social service", this statement appeared to reflect Snedden's idea of educating individuals according to their aptitudes for the benefit of society.

Another possible suggestion of Snedden's influence might be found in the recommendation that various curricular tracks be determined largely in terms of vocation. This may have been a concession to Snedden's idea of intense specialized training for modern industrial occupations.135

Still another example of a statement made in the Cardinal Principles Report which seemed to reflect Snedden's influence is as follows:

> To the extent to which the objectives outlined herein are adopted as the controlling aims of education, to that extent will it be recognized that an extended education for every boy and girl is essential to the welfare, and even to the existence, of democratic society.136

The reference to "controlling aims" and the insistence on educating boys and girls for the welfare of society are clearly reflections of Snedden's views.

Again it is tempting to accept these inferences as proof of one man's influence. However, the same cautions that were recognized in the discussion of Dewey's influence on the C.R.S.E. are also applicable to David Snedden.

Exactly how much influence Snedden or Dewey had on Clarence Kingsley or other members of the C.R.S.E. is a difficult question to resolve. Undoubtedly, Kingsley did utilize some of the ideas of these two contemporaries. However, judging from the Cardinal Principles Report it appears that there was a great deal of selectivity exercised by Mr. Kingsley.

Seeking the strongest foundation possible for the reorganization of secondary education, Kingsley supplemented his own ideas and those of his contemporaries by borrowing from past traditions.

Much that was written into the Cardinal Principles Report was reflective of the educational traditions established by Horace Mann as early as 1837. It is not within the scope of this paper to analyze all of these traditions in depth. Therefore, it will suffice to point out a few of the glaring similarities between Mann and the C.R.S.E.

Like the commission, Mann saw intellectual, moral and civic education as essential aims for the schools.[137] Furthermore, Mann saw the fundamental processes," which he identified as reading, writing and ciphering, as the foundation for a strong curriculum. He also proposed human physiology as a subject to be included in the school program. The main purpose for this subject in school was "an exposition of the laws of Health and Life."[138]

Horace Mann proposed many of the ideas, which were later recommended in the Cardinal Principles Report, at least seventy-eight years before the C.R.S.E. was organized. Mann advocated universal education because he saw it as the "balance wheel of social machinery," the "great equalizer of human conditions," and the creator of undreamed of wealth.[139] In short, he expressed an uncompromising faith in the ability of the schools to improve society. This faith was one of the mainstays of the Cardinal Principles Report.

Herbert Spencer also had a deep faith in the power of the schools to improve society. Spencer argued that human society should be viewed in Darwinian terms. This meant that society was to be seen as being engaged in a struggle for existence and survival of the fittest. This ideology of "Social Darwinism" proved to have a profound effect on social scientists and educators alike.[140]

Using "Social Darwinism" as his base, Spencer wrote in 1859 that the function of schools was to prepare for "complete living." According to Spencer this implied five categories of human activities: (1) those activities, ministering directly to self preservation, (2) those that secure the necessaries of life, (3) those concerned with the rearing and discipline of offsprings, (4) those that maintain proper social and political relations and (5) those devoted to the gratification of tastes and feelings.[141] The ideal education would provide complete preparation in all these categories. Thus, Spencer declared:

> For the maintenance of health, for earning a living, for parenthood, for civic duty, for the perfect production and highest enjoyment of the arts, and for discipline in all forms - intellectual, moral and religious - science was the most efficient study of all.[142]

The similarity between the educational goals identified by Spencer in this statement and the seven main objectives of education enumerated by the C.R.S.E. is unmistakeable. For the purposes of comparison, the seven aims of the Cardinal Principles Report were (1) Health, (2) Command of fundamental processes, (3) Worthy home membership, (4) Vocation, (5) Citizenship, (6) Worthy use of leisure, and (7) Ethical character.

Considering this evidence it seems reasonable to assert that Clarence Kingsley drew several of the ideas incorporated in the Cardinal Principles Report from Herbert Spencer.

Clarence Kingsley drew ideas from many men. Horace Mann and Herbert Spencer are only two examples of those from the past. Further analysis of the Cardinal Principles Report suggests traces of many others such as: George Herbert Mead, William James, G. Stanley Hall, Albion Small, Charles Sumner and Lester Frank Ward. Exactly who contributed what to the final report of the C.R.S.E. is not the important issue. What is important however, is the realization that Kingsley drew upon ideas of his own, those of his contemporaries and also those advanced by men of the past.

EVALUATION OF THE CARDINAL PRINCIPLES REPORT

Although the Cardinal Principles Report offered very little that was new, it did have a powerful impact on the whole field of education. It was sharply criticized and highly praised. It was used and misused. Perhaps most important of all it did stimulate thinking and spark action.

Criticism and Praise

Shortly after its publication, David Snedden wrote a sharp critique of the Cardinal Principles Report. He began by praising the C.R.S.E. for identifying "...certain alleged deficiencies in our present system of secondary education."[143] The commission was also praised for its hard work and special sub-committee reports.

Once the niceties were over, Snedden attacked the report on several counts. He contended:

> It can readily be inferred that the reviewing committee has not easily arrived at its final formulations of cardinal principles. One suspects, indeed, from the very brevity and abstractness of the language used that the committee often found itself unable to agree on concrete exemplifications of its meaning.[144]

Snedden continued his attack by declaring there was much confusion about vocational education in the report. He attributed this to the fact that the committee had failed to distinquish between the study of vocations for purposes of civic understanding, guidance and cultural enlightenment and the study of specific vocations for the sake of becoming efficient producers.[145]

Next, he accused the committee members of being preoccupied with liberal education. He argued that since they could not ignore vocational motives they used them as a means of furthering liberal education. Snedden brought home his point by saying:

> Inspite of its insistence to the contrary it is hard to believe the commission is genuinely interested in any vocational education.[146]

Relentless in his attack, Snedden went on to criticize the Cardinal Principles Report for: (1) recommending the comprehensive high school, (2) under-playing the vocational needs of society, (3) using a "hopelessly academic" philosophy,[147] (4) failing to utilize sociological guideposts and (5) proposing aims that were not serviceable.[148]

Ending on a somewhat cheery note, Snedden concluded his caustic criticisms by offering one final note of praise. The commission

had gone beyond tradition and had opened the way for more extended and detailed analysis.[149]

Kingsley made an immediate reply to Snedden's attack. Two months later in the same publication which Snedden had used, he wrote a defense of the Cardinal Principles Report.[150] The report was not a compromise and the brevity of its language was not a sign of weakness, according to Kingsley. Furthermore, the seven main objectives were derived from a purely sociological base. Kingsley went on to defend the recommendation made by the C.R.S.E. by citing the advantages sought.

Although these two men did not continue this debate, others did. Among the critics was Franklin Bobbitt, who in 1920 wrote:

> The N.E.A. Commission on the Reorganization of the Secondary Education has presented a statement of seven groups of educational objectives which should dictate the work of high schools. ...certain shortcomings are painfully evident.[151]

Fundamentally, Bobbitt attributed these shortcomings to the seven aims which were too general to be useful.

Countering the attack of such critics were men like William Owen who in 1921 cited several contributions made by the Cardinal Principles Report. Owen pointed out that the report had been widely influencial in shaping the content and method of one of the newest and most valuable subjects in secondary education-social studies. Furthermore, the report had influenced the shape of several textbooks in European history and problems of democracy. The report on English had also been widely adopted and had been endorsed by the North Central Association as the standard for both high school work and admission to

college. Finally, Owen pointed out that over 200,000 copies of various committee reports of the C.R.S.E. had been distributed.[152]

Many others entered the fray, speaking either for or against the Cardinal Principles Report. Undoubtedly, this praise and criticisms did much to popularize the report. As a result it was both used and misused.

Uses and Misuses

Krug has indicated that the Cardinal Principles were very popular during the 1920's. It was almost mandatory that every teacher memorize the seven major aims. However, by the middle 1930's these principles had become worn out cliches. Although the popularity of the report quickly waned, its influence lingered for many years. As Krug stated:

> Yet more recent attempt to redefine the objectives of secondary education have not departed far from the 1918 statement.[153]

One such attempt may be seen in the following statement of purposes from the LaGrange, Illinois School System.

A Statement of Purposes

LaGrange, Illinois has proposed the following statement of purposes for the elementary school in 1948:*

1. To help the child build a healthy, well-developed body and the habits and understandings that will enable him to keep it so.
2. To develop habits of clean thinking and wholesomeness.
3. To guide the child in developing personal habits of safe living and concern for the safety of others.

*Note: The following footnote was not included in the references listed at the close of this review. LaGrange Elementary Schools, "Objectives of the Elementary School of LaGrange," Mimeographed statement No. 7, LaGrange, Ill., 1948.

4. To assist the child to develop his moral and spiritual courage and the will to carry out his convictions.
5. To develop within himself that resourcefulness which cares for work and leisure time.
6. To provide individual and group activities which will give every child the satisfaction of contributing to the group and a chance to develop those qualities which will help him to lead as well as to follow.
7. To enable the child to gain increasing control of the tools of learning, language, reading, writing, and arithmetic in relation to their use in social living.
8. To help the child to express himself effectively and creatively.
9. To assist the child in increasing and broadening his supply of useful information.
10. To develop a warm interest and sensitivity to things of beauty.
11. To aid the child in developing belief in the oneness of mankind with proper attitudes toward minority groups.
12. To foster activities which will cultivate in the child habits of thinking, planning, making decisions, acting, and evaluating results; quicken observations; and broaden interests and appreciations.

13. To help the child to believe in freedom and to seek to preserve and improve it.

14. To promote better home and school relationships.

For purposes of illustration, the following analysis is presented:

Seven Cardinal Principles		La Grange Statement of Purposes
1. Health	included in statements one, two, three	
2. Command of fundamental processes	included in statements seven, eight, nine, twelve	
3. Worthy home membership	included in statement fourteen	
4. Vocation	indirectly referred to in statements	nine, twelve
5. Citizenship	included in statements	six, eleven, thirteen and fourteen
6. Worthy use of leisure	included in statements	five, eight, ten
7. Ethical character	included in statements	two, four, eleven, thirteen

More recent attempts to define the main objectives of education have inevitably reflected the seven aims specified in the Cardinal Principles Report. Besides being used as guideposts for other statements of objectives, the Cardinal Principles Report was also the basis for several educational movements. Willing, et al. have suggested that the character education movement of the 1920's was anticipated by the Cardinal Principles' aim of ethical character. These authors stated that the C.R.S.E. report "...undoubtedly gave further inpetus to the tendency to move in this direction." These same authorities went on to indicate that the advocates of life adjustment education pointed out

the need for doing more with such objectives as, health, citizenship, family living and personality development. Therefore, they contended:

> In one sense, ...life adjustment education consists of a renewed emphasis on the point of view symbolized in the "seven principles" stated in 1918.[154]

While the Cardinal Principles Report was used to advantage in many cases it was also misused in others. Apparently, it was misused because, as Krug puts it:

> Specialists in all fields show the tendency to become intoxicated by the apparently unlimited vistas opened by such statements as the Cardinal Principles Report.[155]

Thus it appears that the use of the Cardinal Principles in a variety of courses led to "...artificiality in unit designations and to unwarrented duplications and overlapping in content."[156] School systems in there over zealous efforts to use the Cardinal Principles went to great extremes to build the whole curriculum around the seven major objectives. As a result elaborate schemes were devised and committed to paper in the form of curriculum guides to show how particular subjects contributed to all seven aims.

Summary and Conclusion

The Cardinal Principles Report may be considered an educational classic for several reasons. First, it had both historical and curricular significance. Second, it was formulated during a period of critical change in secondary education- the adolescent years of the public high school movement. Third, it summarized the changes within secondary education and reflected the influence of social efficiency, scientific management and vocationalism. Fourth, it included specific

or inferred recommendations regarding the (1) formulation of objective, (2) the selection of activities and instructional methods, (3) the organization of educational experiences and (4) evaluative techniques. Fifth, it utilized past traditions and contemporary ideas. Sixth, it represented a compromise between the practical vs. academic extremes. Finally, inspite of a continuing debate over its merits and weaknesses, the Cardinal Principles Report did provide a strong base line for future educational development.

Few people saw this document as a final culmination. Rather it was intended to summarize and lead on. In that sense it served as an evaluative instrument, taking stock of current circumstances and providing guidelines for future planning. As Cremin said, "The effect of the Cardinal Principles have been legion."

Total words 12, 133

Footnotes

[1]Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, "Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education," Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, Bulletin Number 25, 1918, title page

[2]Edward A. Krug, "Social Issues and Education," Education 115 University of Wisconsin, September 20, 1963, lecture

[3]Lawrence A. Cremin, "The Revolution in American Secondary Education, 1893-1918," Teachers College Record, March, 1955, p. 307

[4]Edward A. Krug, op.cit., September 23, 1963, lecture

[5]Margaret Ammons, "Seminar in Elementary School Curriculum" Education 140, University of Wisconsin, September 24, 1963, lecture

[6]Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, op. cit.

[7]M. H. Willing, John Guy Fowlkes, Edward Krug, Russell Gregg and Clifford Liddle, Schools in Our Democratic Society, New York: Harper and Brothers, 1951, p. 159

[8]Edward A. Krug, "Secondary School Curriculum," Education 141 University of Wisconsin, March 1, 1963, lecture

[9]Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, op. cit., p. 8

[10]R. Freeman Butts and Lawrence A. Cremin, A History of Education in American Culture, New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1953, p. 418

[11]Edward A. Krug, The Secondary School Curriculum, New York: Harper and Brothers, 1960, p. 1

[12]Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education op. cit., p. 8

[13]R. Freeman Butts and Lawrence A. Cremin, op. cit., p 8

[14]Edward A. Krug, "Social Issues and Education," op. cit., Sept. 20, 1963, lecture.

[15]Ibid.

[16]Ibid.

[17]Ibid.

[18]Ibid.

[19]Walter Drost, University of Wisconsin, September 16, 1963 personal interview.

[20]Edward A. Krug, "Social Issues and Education," op. cit. September 20, 1963, lecture

[21]Specific reference not located.

[22]David Snedden, "New Problems of Secondary Education," American Education, February, 1916, p. 332-336.

[23]Ibid.

[24]Edward A. Krug, "Social Issues and Education," op. cit. September 23, 1963, lecture

[25]Ibid.

[26]Lawrence A. Cremin, The Transformation of the School, New York: Alfred Knopf, Publisher, 1962, p. 63

[27]John Dewey, Democracy and Education, New York: Macmillan Co., 1951, p. 119

[28]Edward A. Krug, "Social Issues and Education," op. cit. September 25, 1963, lecture

[29]John Dewey, op. cit., p. 120

[30]Ibid., p. 123

[31]Ibid., p. 23

[32]Ibid., p. 80

[33]John Dewey, My Pedogogic Creed, New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1959, p. 22.

[34]Ibid.

[35]John Dewey, The School and Society, Chicago: University of Chicago, 1953, chapter one.

[36]Henry May, The End of American Innocence, New York: Alfred Knopf, Publisher, 1959, p. 151

[37]John Dewey, Democracy and Education, op. cit., p. 88

[38] Ibid., chapters 11 and 12

[39] Ibid, p. 85

[40] R. Freeman Butts and Lawrence A. Cremin, op. cit., p. 347

[41] Henry May, op. cit., p. 150

[42] John Dewey, Democracy and Education, op. cit., p. 67

[43] Martin S. Dworkin, Dewey on Education, New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1959, p. 10

[44] Edward A. Krug, "Social Issues and Education," op. cit., Sept. 25, 1963, lecture.

[45] Ibid.

[46] Ibid.

[47] Lawrence A. Cremin, The Transformation of the Schools, op. cit., p. 24

[48] Ibid., p. 29

[49] Ibid., p. 33

[50] Ibid., p. 50

[51] Ibid.

[52] Ibid., p. 52

[53] John Dewey, Democracy and Education, op. cit., p. 313-315

[54] Edward A. Krug, "Social Issues and Education," op. cit., Sept. 25, 1963, lecture.

[55] Ibid.

[56] Ibid.

[57] Martin Dworkin, op. cit., p. 9

[58] Henry May, op. cit., p. 28

[59] Edward A. Krug, "Social Issues and Education," op. cit., September 23, 1963, lecture

[60] Henry May, op. cit., p. 150

[61]Ibid., p. 11

[62]Ibid., p. 137

[63]George Strayer, "The Emergency in Secondary Education," National Education Association, Journal of Proceedings, June 1918, pp. 187-188

[64]Ibid.

[65]Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, op. cit., p. 35

[66]Edward Krug, The Secondary School Curriculum, op. cit., p. 35

[67]Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, op. cit., preface.

[68]Ibid., p. 6

[69]Edward A. Krug, "Social Issues and Education," op. cit., Sept. 23, 1963, lecture.

[70]Walter Drost, op. cit., interview

[71]Virgil E. Herrick, Collected Papers and Source Material on Curriculum Organizations and Structure, Madison, Wisconsin: College Printing and Typing Co., 1962, p. 2

[72]Ibid.

[73]Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, op. cit., p. 7

[74]Ibid., p. 7 and p. 9

[75]Ibid., p. 7

[76]Ibid., pp. 10-11

[77]Ibid., p. 11

[78]Ibid., p. 16

[79]Ibid.

[80]Ibid., p. 20

[81]Ibid., p. 27

[82]Ibid., p. 11

[83] Ibid.

[84] Ibid.

[85] Ibid., p. 20

[86] Ibid., p. 27

[87] Ibid., p. 29.

[88] Ibid., p. 11

[89] Ibid., p. 12

[90] Ibid., p. 13

[91] Ibid.

[92] Ibid.

[93] Ibid.

[94] Ibid., p. 14

[95] Ibid.

[96] Ibid.

[97] Ibid.

[98] Ibid., pp. 21, 22, 23, 29

[99] Ibid., p. 24

[100] Ibid., p. 16

[101] Ibid., p. 18

[102] Ibid.

[103] Ibid.

[104] Ibid., p. 11

[105] Ibid., p. 27

[106] Ibid., pp. 21-25

[107] Ibid., p. 19

[108] Ibid., p. 21

[109] Ibid.

[110] Ibid., p. 30

[111] Ibid., p. 17

[112] Ibid., pp. 28-29

[113] Ibid., p. 20

[114] Walter Drost, op. cit., interview

[115] Clarence Kingsley, "Problems Confronting the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education," N.E.A. Journal of Proceedings, 1914, pp. 483-488

[116] Ibid., p. 485

[117] Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, op. cit., pp. 22-23

[118] Ibid., p. 16

[119] Clarence Kingsley, op. cit., p. 485

[120] Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, op. cit., p. 16

[121] Clarence Kingsley, op. cit., p. 485

[122] Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, op. cit., p. 17

[123] Henry May, op. cit., p. 152

[124] Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, op. cit., p. 16

[125] John Dewey, Democracy and Education, op. cit., p. 54

[126] Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, op. cit., p. 9

[127] John Dewey, Democracy and Education, op. cit., chap. 7

[128] Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, op. cit., p. 12

[129] John Dewey, Democracy and Education, op. cit., pp. 55-56

[130] Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, op. cit., p. 13

[131]John Dewey, Democracy and Education, op. cit., p. 85

[132]Walter Drost, op. cit., interview

[133]Refer to page 7 of this paper.

[134]Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, op. cit., p. 9

[135]Refer to page 7 of this paper.

[136]Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, op. cit., p. 29

[137]Lawrence A. Cremin, The Republic and the School, New York: Teacher's College, Columbia University, 1957, p. 11

[138]Ibid., pp. 11-14

[139]Ibid., p. 8

[140]R. Freeman Butts and Lawrence Cremin, op. cit., p. 349

[141]Lawrence A. Cremin, The Transformation of the Schools, op. cit., p. 92

[142]Ibid., p. 93

[143]David Snedden, "Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education, School and Society, Volume IX, May 3, 1919, p. 517

[144]Ibid., p. 518

[145]Ibid., p. 526

[146]Ibid., p. 527

[147]Ibid., p. 522

[148]Ibid., p. 519

[149]Ibid., p. 527

[150]Clarence Kingsley, "Cardinal Principles Report of Secondary Education," School and Society, Volume X, July 5, 1919, pp. 18-20

[151]Franklin Bobbitt, "The Objectives of Secondary Education," School Review, Volume 28, December 1920, pp. 738-749

[152]William Owen, "Report of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education," N.E.A. Journal of Proceedings, July 1921, pp. 163-167

[153]Edward A. Krug, The Secondary School Curriculum, op. cit., p. 36

[154]M. H. Willing, op. cit., p. 212-220

[155]Edward Krug, The Secondary School Curriculum, op. cit., p. 381

[156]Ibid., p. 403

[157]Lawrence A. Cremin, "The Revolution in American Secondary Education," op. cit., p. 307

The following footnote which appears on page 47 was not included in this study: La Grange Elementary Schools, "Objectives of the Elementary Schools of La Grange," Mimeographed statement No. 7, La Grange, Ill., 1948.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Publications

Butts, Freeman R. and Cremin, Lawrence A. A History of Education in American Culture. New York: Rinehart and Winston, 1953.

Cremin, Lawrence A. The Transformation of the School. New York: Alfred Knopf, Publisher, 1962.

Cremin, Lawrence A. The Republic and the School. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1957.

Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education. Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, Bulletin Number 35, 1918.

Dewey, John. My Pedagogic Creed. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1959.

Dewey, John. Democracy and Education. New York: Macmillan Co., 1951.

Dewey, John. The School and Society. Chicago: University of Chicago, 1953.

Dworkin, Martin S. Dewey on Education. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1959.

Herrick, Virgil. Collected Papers and Source Materials on Curriculum Operations and Structure. Madison, Wisconsin: College Printing and Typing Co., 1962.

Krug, Edward A. The Secondary School Curriculum. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1960.

May, Henry. The End of American Innocence. New York: Alfred Knopf, Publisher, 1951.

Willing, M. H., Fowlkes, John Guy, Krug, Edward A., Gregg, Russell, and Liddle, Clifford. Schools in Our Democratic Society. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1951.

Articles

Bobbitt, Franklin. "The Objectives of Secondary Education," School Review, Volume 28, (Dec., 1920), 738-749.

Cremin, Lawrence A. "The Revolution in American Secondary Education, 1843-1918." Teachers College Record, March, 1955.

Kingsley, Clarence. "Cardinal Principles Report." School and Society, Volume X, (July 5, 1919), 18-20.

Kingsley, Clarence. "Problems Confronting the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education," National Education Association Journal of Proceedings, 1914, 483-488.

Owen, William. "Report of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education." National Education Association of Proceedings, July, 1921, 163-167.

Snedden, David. "Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education." School and Society, Volume IX, May 3, 1919, 517-527.

Snedden, David. "New Problems of Secondary Education." American Education, February 1916, 332-336.

Strayer, George. "The Emergency in Secondary Education." National Education Association Journal of Proceedings, June, 1918, 187-188.

APPENDIX A

CARDINAL PRINCIPLES OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
BUREAU OF EDUCATION

BULLETIN, 1918, No. 35

CARDINAL PRINCIPLES OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

A REPORT OF THE COMMISSION ON THE REORGANIZATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION, APPOINTED BY THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

UNITED STATES
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
WASHINGTON 1962

CONTENTS

PREFACE

The Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education presents herewith the cardinal principles which, in the judgment of its reviewing committee, should guide the reorganization and development of secondary education in the United States.

The commission was the direct outgrowth of the work of the committee on the articulation of high school and college, which submitted its report to the National Education Association in 1911. That committee set forth briefly its conception of the field and function of secondary education and urged the modification of college entrance requirements in order that the secondary school might adapt its work to the varying needs of its pupils without closing to them the possibility of continued education in higher institutions. It took the position that the satisfactory completion of any well-planned high-school curriculum should be accepted as a preparation for college. This recommendation accentuated the responsibility of the secondary school for planning its work so that young people may meet the needs of democracy.

Through 16 of its committees the commission is issuing reports dealing with the organization and administration of secondary schools, and with the aims, methods, and content of the various studies. To assist these committees through constructive criticism, a reviewing committee was organized in 1913. Besides conducting continuous correspondence, that committee has each year held one or two meetings of from one to six days' duration, at which reports of the various committees were discussed from many points of view, and as a result some of the reports have been revised and rewritten several times. In addition to its task of criticizing reports, it seemed desirable that the reviewing committee itself should outline in a single brief report those fundamental principles that would be most helpful in directing secondary education. In its desire to determine the principles that are most significant and to set them forth adequately, the reviewing committee has been three years in formulating and revising the report which is presented in this bulletin.

The reports already issued by seven committees and listed on the last page of this bulletin are, for the most part, in fundamental agreement with the principles herein set forth.

The translation of these cardinal principles into daily practice will of necessity call for continued study and experiment on the part of the administrative officers and teachers in secondary schools.

CLARENCE D. KINGSLEY,
Chairman of the Commission.

THE REVIEWING COMMITTEE OF THE COMMISSION ON THE REORGANIZATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

(The Reviewing Committee consists of 26 members, of whom 16 are chairmen of committees and 10 are members at large)

Chairman of the Commission and of the Reviewing Committee:

Clarence D. Kingsley, State high-school supervisor, Boston, Mass.

Members at large:

Hon. P. P. Claxton, United States Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C.

Thomas H. Briggs, associate professor of education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

Alexander Inglis, assistant professor of education, in charge of secondary education, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.

Henry Neumann, Ethical Culture School, New York City.

William Orr, senior educational secretary, international Y. M. C. A. committee, 164 East Thirty-eighth Street, New York City.

William B. Owen, principal, Chicago Normal College, Chicago, Ill.

Edward O. Sisson, president, University of Montana, Missoula, Mont.

Joseph S. Stewart, professor of secondary education, University of Georgia, Athens, Ga.

Milo H. Stuart, principal, Technical High School, Indianapolis, Ind.

H. L. Terry, State high school supervisor, Madison, Wis.

Chairmen of Committees:

Organization and Administration of Secondary Education—Charles Hughes Johnston, professor of secondary education, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.[1]

Agriculture—A. V. Storm, professor of agricultural education, University of Minnesota, St. Paul, Minn.

Art Education—Henry Turner Bailey, dean, Cleveland School of Art, Cleveland, Ohio.

Articulation of High School and College—Clarence D. Kingsley, State high-school inspector, Boston, Mass.

Business Education—Cheesman A. Herrick, president, Girard College, Philadelphia, Pa.

Classical Languages—Walter Eugene Foster, Stuyvesant High School, New York City.

English—James Fleming Hosic, Chicago Normal College, Chicago, Ill.

Household Arts—Mrs. Henrietta Calvin, United States Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

Industrial Arts—Wilson H. Henderson, extension division, University of Wisconsin, Milwaukee, Wis. (now Major, Sanitary Corps, War Department, U. S. A.).

Mathematics—William Heard Kilpatrick, associate professor of education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

Modern Languages—Edward Manley, Englewood High School, Chicago, Ill.

Music—Will Earhart, director of music, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Physical Education—James H. McCurdy, director of normal courses of physical education, International Y. M. C. A. College, Springfield, Mass. (now in France, in charge of Y. M. C. A. recreation work).

Sciences—Otis W. Caldwell, director, Lincoln School, and professor of education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

Social Studies—Thomas Jesse Jones, United States Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

Vocational Guidance—Frank M. Leavitt, associate superintendent of schools, Pittsburgh, Pa.

---

[1] Deceased, Sept. 4, 1917.

CARDINAL PRINCIPLES OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

I. THE NEED FOR REORGANIZATION

Secondary education should be determined by the needs of the society to be served, the character of the individuals to be educated, and the knowledge of educational theory and practice available. These factors are by no means static. Society is always in process of development; the character of the secondary-school population undergoes modification; and the sciences on which educational theory and practice depend constantly furnish new information. Secondary education, however, like any other established agency of society, is conservative and tends to resist modification. Failure to make adjustments when the need arises leads to the necessity for extensive reorganization at irregular intervals. The evidence is strong that such a comprehensive reorganization of secondary education is imperative at the present time.

1. *Changes in society.*—Within the past few decades changes have taken place in American life profoundly affecting the activities of the individual. As a citizen, he must to a greater extent and in a more direct way cope with problems of community life, State and National Governments, and international relationships. As a worker, he must adjust himself to a more complex economic order. As a relatively independent personality, he has more leisure. The problems arising from these three dominant phases of life are closely interrelated and call for a degree of intelligence and efficiency on the part of every citizen that can not be secured through elementary education alone, or even through secondary education unless the scope of that education is broadened.

The responsibility of the secondary school is still further increased because many social agencies other than the school afford less stimulus for education than heretofore. In many vocations there have come such significant changes as the substitution of the factory system for the domestic system of industry; the use of machinery in place of manual labor; the high specialization of processes with a corresponding subdivision of labor; and the breakdown of the apprentice system. In connection with home and family life have frequently come lessened responsibility on the part of the children; the withdrawal of the father and sometimes the mother from home occupations to the factory or store; and increased urbanization, result-

ing in less unified family life. Similarly, many important changes have taken place in community life, in the church, in the State, and in other institutions. These changes in American life call for extensive modifications in secondary education.

2. *Changes in the secondary-school population.*—In the past 25 years there have been marked changes in the secondary-school population of the United States. The number of pupils has increased, according to Federal returns, from one for every 210 of the total population in 1889–90, to one for every 121 in 1899–1900, to one for every 89 in 1909–10, and to one for every 73 of the estimated total population in 1914–15. The character of the secondary-school population has been modified by the entrance of large numbers of pupils of widely varying capacities, aptitudes, social heredity, and destinies in life. Further, the broadening of the scope of secondary education has brought to the school many pupils who do not complete the full course but leave at various stages of advancement. The needs of these pupils can not be neglected, nor can we expect in the near future that all pupils will be able to complete the secondary school as full-time students.

At present only about one-third of the pupils who enter the first year of the elementary school reach the four-year high school, and only about one in nine is graduated. Of those who enter the seventh school year, only one-half to two-thirds reach the first year of the four-year high school. Of those who enter the four-year high school about one-third leave before the beginning of the second year, about one-half are gone before the beginning of the third year, and fewer than one-third are graduated. These facts can no longer be safely ignored.

3. *Changes in educational theory.*—The sciences on which educational theory depends have within recent years made significant contributions. In particular, educational psychology emphasizes the following factors:

(*a*) *Individual differences in capacities and aptitudes among secondary-school pupils.*—Already recognized to some extent, this factor merits fuller attention.

(*b*) *The reexamination and reinterpretation of subject values and the teaching methods with reference to "general discipline."*—While the final verdict of modern psychology has not as yet been rendered, it is clear that former conceptions of "general values" must be thoroughly revised.

(*c*) *Importance of applying knowledge.*—Subject values and teaching methods must be tested in terms of the laws of learning and the application of knowledge to the activities of life, rather than primarily in terms of the demands of any subject as a logically organized science.

(*d*) *Continuity in the development of children.*—It has long been held that psychological changes at certain stages are so pronounced as to overshadow the continuity of development. On this basis secondary education has been sharply separated from elementary education. Modern psychology, however, goes to show that the development of the individual is in most respects a continuous process and that, therefore, any sudden or abrupt break between the elementary and the secondary school or between any two successive stages of education is undesirable.

The foregoing changes in society, in the character of the secondary-school population, and in educational theory, together with many other considerations, call for extensive modifications of secondary education. Such modifications have already begun in part. The present need is for the formulation of a comprehensive program of reorganization, and its adoption, with suitable adjustments, in all the secondary schools of the Nation. Hence it is appropriate for a representative body like the National Education Association to outline such a program. This is the task entrusted by that association to the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education.

II. THE GOAL OF EDUCATION IN A DEMOCRACY

Education in the United States should be guided by a clear conception of the meaning of democracy. It is the ideal of democracy that the individual and society may find fulfillment each in the other. Democracy sanctions neither the exploitation of the individual by society, nor the disregard of the interests of society by the individual. More explicitly—

The purpose of democracy is so to organize society that each member may develop his personality primarily through activities designed for the well-being of his fellow members and of society as a whole.

This ideal demands that human activities be placed upon a high level of efficiency; that to this efficiency be added an appreciation of the significance of these activities and loyalty to the best ideals involved; and that the individual choose that vocation and those forms of social service in which his personality may develop and become most effective. For the achievement of these ends democracy must place chief reliance upon education.

Consequently, education in a democracy, both within and without the school, should develop in each individual the knowledge, interests, ideals, habits, and powers whereby he will find his place and use that place to shape both himself and society toward ever nobler ends.

III. THE MAIN OBJECTIVES OF EDUCATION

In order to determine the main objectives that should guide education in a democracy it is necessary to analyze the activities of the individual. Normally he is a member of a family, of a vocational

group, and of various civic groups, and by virtue of these relationships he is called upon to engage in activities that enrich the family life, to render important vocational services to his fellows, and to promote the common welfare. It follows, therefore, that worthy home-membership, vocation, and citizenship, demand attention as three of the leading objectives.

Aside from the immediate discharge of these specific duties, every individual should have a margin of time for the cultivation of personal and social interests. This leisure, if worthily used, will recreate his powers and enlarge and enrich life, thereby making him better able to meet his responsibilities. The unworthy use of leisure impairs health, disrupts home life, lessens vocational efficiency, and destroys civic-mindedness. The tendency in industrial life, aided by legislation, is to decrease the working hours of large groups of people. While shortened hours tend to lessen the harmful reactions that arise from prolonged strain, they increase, if possible, the importance of preparation for leisure. In view of these considerations, education for the worthy use of leisure is of increasing importance as an objective.

To discharge the duties of life and to benefit from leisure, one must have good health. The health of the individual is essential also to the vitality of the race and to the defense of the Nation. Health education is, therefore, fundamental.

There are various processes, such as reading, writing, arithmetical computations, and oral and written expression, that are needed as tools in the affairs of life. Consequently, command of these fundamental processes, while not an end in itself, is nevertheless an indispensable objective.

And, finally, the realization of the objectives already named is dependent upon ethical character, that is, upon conduct founded upon right principles, clearly perceived and loyally adhered to. Good citizenship, vocational excellence, and the worthy use of leisure go hand in hand with ethical character; they are at once the fruits of sterling character and the channels through which such character is developed and made manifest. On the one hand, character is meaningless apart from the will to discharge the duties of life, and, on the other hand, there is no guarantee that these duties will be rightly discharged unless principles are substituted for impulses, however well-intentioned such impulses may be. Consequently ethical character is at once involved in all the other objectives and at the same time requires specific consideration in any program of national education.

This commission, therefore, regards the following as the main objectives of education: 1. Health. 2. Command of fundamental proc-

CARDINAL PRINCIPLES OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

I. THE NEED FOR REORGANIZATION

Secondary education should be determined by the needs of the society to be served, the character of the individuals to be educated, and the knowledge of educational theory and practice available. These factors are by no means static. Society is always in process of development; the character of the secondary-school population undergoes modification; and the sciences on which educational theory and practice depend constantly furnish new information. Secondary education, however, like any other established agency of society, is conservative and tends to resist modification. Failure to make adjustments when the need arises leads to the necessity for extensive reorganization at irregular intervals. The evidence is strong that such a comprehensive reorganization of secondary education is imperative at the present time.

1. *Changes in society.*—Within the past few decades changes have taken place in American life profoundly affecting the activities of the individual. As a citizen, he must to a greater extent and in a more direct way cope with problems of community life, State and National Governments, and international relationships. As a worker, he must adjust himself to a more complex economic order. As a relatively independent personality, he has more leisure. The problems arising from these three dominant phases of life are closely interrelated and call for a degree of intelligence and efficiency on the part of every citizen that can not be secured through elementary education alone, or even through secondary education unless the scope of that education is broadened.

The responsibility of the secondary school is still further increased because many social agencies other than the school afford less stimulus for education than heretofore. In many vocations there have come such significant changes as the substitution of the factory system for the domestic system of industry; the use of machinery in place of manual labor; the high specialization of processes with a corresponding subdivision of labor; and the breakdown of the apprentice system. In connection with home and family life have frequently come lessened responsibility on the part of the children; the withdrawal of the father and sometimes the mother from home occupations to the factory or store; and increased urbanization, result-

esses. 3. Worthy home-membership. 4. Vocation. 5. Citizenship. 6. Worthy use of leisure. 7. Ethical character.

The naming of the above objectives is not intended to imply that the process of education can be divided into separated fields. This can not be, since the pupil is indivisible. Nor is the analysis all-inclusive. Nevertheless, we believe that distinguishing and naming these objectives will aid in directing efforts; and we hold that they should constitute the principal aims in education.

IV. THE RÔLE OF SECONDARY EDUCATION IN ACHIEVING THESE OBJECTIVES

The objectives outlined above apply to education as a whole—elementary, secondary, and higher. It is the purpose of this section to consider specifically the rôle of secondary education in achieving each of these objectives.

For reasons stated in section X, this commission favors such reorganization that secondary education may be defined as applying to all pupils of approximately 12 to 18 years of age.

1. *Health.*—Health needs can not be neglected during the period of secondary education without serious danger to the individual and the race. The secondary school should therefore provide health instruction, inculcate health habits, organize an effective program of physical activities, regard health needs in planning work and play, and cooperate with home and community in safe-guarding and promoting health interests.

To carry out such a program it is necessary to arouse the public to recognize that the health needs of young people are of vital importance to society, to secure teachers competent to ascertain and meet the needs of individual pupils and able to inculcate in the entire student body a love for clean sport, to furnish adequate equipment for physical activities, and to make the school building, its rooms and surroundings, conform to the best standards of hygiene and sanitation.[1]

2. *Command of fundamental processes.*—Much of the energy of the elementary school is properly devoted to teaching certain fundamental processes, such as reading, writing, arithmetical computations, and the elements of oral and written expression. The facility that a child of 12 or 14 may acquire in the use of these tools is not sufficient for the needs of modern life. This is particularly true of the mother tongue. Proficiency in many of these processes may be increased more effectively by their application to new material than by the formal reviews commonly employed in grades seven and eight.

[1] For the outlines of a health program, see a report of this commission issued by the Bureau of Education as Bulletin, 1917, No. 50, "Physical Education in Secondary Schools."

Throughout the secondary school, instruction and practice must go hand in hand, but as indicated in the report of the committee on English,[1] only so much theory should be taught at any one time as will show results in practice.

3. *Worthy home-membership.*—Worthy home-membership as an objective calls for the development of those qualities that make the individual a worthy member of a family, both contributing to and deriving benefit from that membership.

This objective applies to both boys and girls. The social studies should deal with the home as a fundamental social institution and clarify its relation to the wider interests outside. Literature should interpret and idealize the human elements that go to make the home. Music and art should result in more beautiful homes and in greater joy therein. The coeducational school with a faculty of men and women should, in its organization and its activities, exemplify wholesome relations between boys and girls and men and women.

Home membership as an objective should not be thought of solely with reference to future duties. These are the better guaranteed if the school helps the pupils to take the right attitude toward present home responsibilities and interprets to them the contribution of the home to their development.

In the education of every high-school girl, the household arts should have a prominent place because of their importance to the girl herself and to others whose welfare will be directly in her keeping. The attention now devoted to this phase of education is inadequate, and especially so for girls preparing for occupations not related to the household arts and for girls planning for higher institutions. The majority of girls who enter wage-earning occupations directly from the high school remain in them for only a few years, after which home making becomes their lifelong occupation. For them the high-school period offers the only assured opportunity to prepare for that lifelong occupation, and it is during this period that they are most likely to form their ideals of life's duties and responsibilities. For girls planning to enter higher institutions—

> our traditional ideals of preparation for higher institutions are particularly incongruous with the actual needs and future responsibilities of girls. It would seem that such high-school work as is carefully designed to develop capacity for, and interest in, the proper management and conduct of a home should be regarded as of importance at least equal to that of any other work. We do not understand how society can properly continue to sanction for girls high-school curriculums that disregard this fundamental need, even though such curriculums are planned in response to the demands made by some of the colleges for women.[2]

[1] Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1917, No 2, "Reorganization of English in Secondary Schools."

[2] Report of the Committee on the Articulation of High School and College, 1911.

In the education of boys, some opportunity should be found to give them a basis for the intelligent appreciation of the value of the well-appointed home and of the labor and skill required to maintain such a home, to the end that they may cooperate more effectively. For instance, they should understand the essentials of food values, of sanitation, and of household budgets.

4. *Vocation.*—Vocational education should equip the individual to secure a livelihood for himself and those dependent on him, to serve society well through his vocation, to maintain the right relationships toward his fellow workers and society, and, as far as possible, to find in that vocation his own best development.

This ideal demands that the pupil explore his own capacities and aptitudes, and make a survey of the world's work, to the end that he may select his vocation wisely. Hence, an effective program of vocational guidance in the secondary school is essential.[1]

Vocational education should aim to develop an appreciation of the significance of the vocation to the community, and a clear conception of right relations between the members of the chosen vocation, between different vocational groups, between employer and employee, and between producer and consumer. These aspects of vocational education, heretofore neglected, demand emphatic attention.

The extent to which the secondary school should offer training for a specific vocation depends upon the vocation, the facilities that the school can acquire, and the opportunity that the pupil may have to obtain such training later. To obtain satisfactory results those proficient in that vocation should be employed as instructors and the actual conditions of the vocation should be utilized either within the high school or in cooperation with the home, farm, shop, or office. Much of the pupil's time will be required to produce such efficiency.

5. *Civic education* should develop in the individual those qualities whereby he will act well his part as a member of neighborhood, town or city, State, and Nation, and give him a basis for understanding international problems.

For such citizenship the following are essential: A many-sided interest in the welfare of the communities to which one belongs; loyalty to ideals of civic righteousness, practical knowledge of social agencies and institutions; good judgment as to means and methods that will promote one social end without defeating others; and as putting all these into effect, habits of cordial cooperation in social undertakings.

The school should develop the concept that the civic duties of men and women, while in part identical, are also in part supplementary.

[1] For a comprehensive program of vocational guidance see a report of this commission issued as Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1918, No. 19, "Vocational Guidance in Secondary Schools."

Differentiation in civic activities is to be encouraged, but not to the extent of loss of interest in the common problems with which all should cope.

Among the means for developing attitudes and habits important in a democracy are the assignment of projects and problems to groups of pupils for cooperative solution and the socialized recitation whereby the class as a whole develops a sense of collective responsibility. Both of these devices give training in collective thinking. Moreover, the democratic organization and administration of the school itself, as well as the cooperative relations of pupils and teacher, pupil and pupil, and teacher and teacher, are indispensable.

While all subjects should contribute to good citizenship, the social studies—geography, history, civics, and economics—should have this as their dominant aim. Too frequently, however, does mere information, conventional in value and remote in its bearing, make up the content of the social studies. History should so treat the growth of institutions that their present value may be appreciated. Geography should show the interdependence of men while it shows their common dependence on nature. Civics should concern itself less with constitutional questions and remote governmental functions, and should direct attention to social agencies close at hand and to the informal activities of daily life that regard and seek the common good. Such agencies as child-welfare organizations and consumers' leagues afford specific opportunities for the expression of civic qualities by the older pupils.

The work in English should kindle social ideals and give insight into social conditions and into personal character as related to these conditions. Hence the emphasis by the committee on English on the importance of a knowledge of social activities, social movements, and social needs on the part of the teacher of English.

The comprehension of the ideals of American democracy and loyalty to them should be a prominent aim of civic education. The pupil should feel that he will be responsible, in cooperation with others, for keeping the Nation true to the best inherited conceptions of democracy, and he should also realize that democracy itself is an ideal to be wrought out by his own and succeeding generations.

Civic education should consider other nations also. As a people we should try to understand their aspirations and ideals that we may deal more sympathetically and intelligently with the immigrant coming to our shores, and have a basis for a wiser and more sympathetic approach to international problems. Our pupils should learn that each nation, at least potentially, has something of worth to contribute to civilization and that humanity would be incomplete without that contribution. This means a study of specific nations, their achievements and possibilities, not ignoring their limi-

tations. Such a study of dissimilar contributions in the light of the ideal of human brotherhood should help to establish a genuine internationalism, free from sentimentality, founded on fact, and actually operative in the affairs of nations.[1]

6. *Worthy use of leisure.*—Education should equip the individual to secure from his leisure the re-creation of body, mind, and spirit, and the enrichment and enlargement of his personality.

This objective calls for the ability to utilize the common means of enjoyment, such as music, art, literature, drama, and social intercourse, together with the fostering in each individual of one or more special avocational interests.

Heretofore the high school has given little conscious attention to this objective. It has so exclusively sought intellectual discipline that it has seldom treated literature, art, and music so as to evoke right emotional response and produce positive enjoyment. Its presentation of science should aim, in part, to arouse a genuine appreciation of nature.

The school has failed also to organize and direct the social activities of young people as it should. One of the surest ways in which to prepare pupils worthily to utilize leisure in adult life is by guiding and directing their use of leisure in youth. The school should, therefore, see that adequate recreation is provided both within the school and by other proper agencies in the community. The school, however, has a unique opportunity in this field because it includes in its membership representatives from all classes of society and consequently is able through social relationships to establish bonds of friendship and common understanding that can not be furnished by other agencies. Moreover, the school can so organize recreational activities that they will contribute simultaneously to other ends of education, as in the case of the school pageant or festival.

7. *Ethical character.*—In a democratic society ethical character becomes paramount among the objectives of the secondary school. Among the means for developing ethical character may be mentioned the wise selection of content and methods of instruction in all subjects of study, the social contacts of pupils with one another and with their teachers, the opportunities afforded by the organization and administration of the school for the development on the part of pupils of the sense of personal responsibility and initiative, and, above all, the spirit of service and the principles of true democracy which should permeate the entire school—principal, teachers, and pupils.

Specific consideration is given to the moral values to be obtained from the organization of the school and the subjects of study in the

[1] For a further discussion of civic education, see the reports of this commission on "The Teaching of Community Civics" and "Social Studies in Secondary Education", issued as Bureau of Education Bulletins, 1915, No. 23, and 1916, No. 28, respectively.

report of this commission entitled "Moral Values in Secondary Education."[1] That report considers also the conditions under which it may be advisable to supplement the other activities of the school by offering a distinct course in moral instruction.

V. INTERRELATION OF THE OBJECTIVES IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

This commission holds that education is essentially a unitary and continuous process, and that each of the objectives defined above must be recognized throughout the entire extent of secondary education. Health needs are evidently important at all stages; the vocational purpose and content is coming properly to be recognized as a necessary and valuable ingredient even in the early stages and even when specific preparation is postponed; citizenship and the worthy use of leisure, obviously important in the earlier stages, involve certain phases of education that require maturity on the part of the pupil and hence are indispensable also in the later stages of secondary education.

Furthermore, it is only as the pupil sees his vocation in relation to his citizenship and his citizenship in the light of his vocation that he will be prepared for effective membership in an industrial democracy. Consequently this commission enters its protest against any and all plans, however well intended, which are in danger of divorcing vocation and social-civic education. It stands squarely for the infusion of vocation with the spirit of service and for the vitalization of culture by genuine contact with the world's work.

VI. RECOGNITION OF THE OBJECTIVES IN REORGANIZING HIGH-SCHOOL SUBJECTS

Each subject now taught in high schools is in need of extensive reorganization in order that it may contribute more effectively to the objectives outlined herein, and the place of that subject in secondary education should depend upon the value of such contribution. In Section IV of this report various references have been made to needed changes. For fuller treatment the reader is referred to reports of this commission dealing with the several subjects. These reports indicate important steps in such modifications. In each report the commission attempts to analyze the aims in terms of the objectives; to indicate the adaptation of methods of presentation to the aims accepted; and to suggest a selection of content on the basis of aims and methods.

VII. EDUCATION AS A PROCESS OF GROWTH

Education must be conceived as a process of growth. Only when so conceived and so conducted can it become a preparation for life.

[1] Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1917, No. 51.

Insofar as this principle has been ignored, formalism and sterility have resulted.

For example, civic education too often has begun with topics remote from the pupil's experience and interest. Reacting against this formalism, some would have pupils study only those activities in which they can engage while young. This extreme, however, is neither necessary nor desirable. Pupils should be led to respond to present duties and, at the same time, their interest should be aroused in problems of adult life. With this interest as a basis, they should be helped to acquire the habits, insight, and ideals that will enable them to meet the duties and responsibilities of later life. Similarly in home-making education, to neglect present duties and responsibilities toward the family of which the pupil is now a member, is to court moral insincerity and jeopardize future right conduct. With present duties as a point of departure, home-making education should arouse an interest in future home-making activities and with that interest as a basis give the training necessary.

VIII. NEED FOR EXPLICIT VALUES

The number of years that pupils continue in school beyond the compulsory school age depends in large measure upon the degree to which they and their parents realize that school work is worth while for them and that they are succeeding in it. Probably in most communities doubt regarding the value of the work offered causes more pupils to leave school than economic necessity. Consequently, it is important that the work of each pupil should be so presented as to convince him and his parents of its real value.

IX. SUBORDINATION OF DEFERRED VALUES

Many subjects are now so organized as to be of little value unless the pupil studies them for several years. Since a large proportion of pupils leave school in each of the successive years, each subject should be so organized that the first year of work will be of definite value to those who go no further; and this principle should be applied to the work of each year. Courses planned in accordance with this principle will deal with the simpler aspects, or those of more direct application, in the earlier years and will defer the refinements for later years when these can be better appreciated. The course as a whole will then be better adapted to the needs both of those who continue and of those who drop out of school.

X. DIVISION OF EDUCATION INTO ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY

Individual differences in pupils and the varied needs of society alike demand that education be so varied as to touch the leading aspects of occupational, civic, and leisure life. To this end curric-

ulums[1] must be organized at appropriate stages and the work of pupils progressively differentiated.

To accomplish this differentiation most wisely the pupil should be assisted ordinarily at about 12 or 13 years of age to begin a preliminary survey of the activities of adult life and of his own aptitudes in connection therewith, so that he may choose, at least tentatively, some field of human endeavor for special consideration. Following the period of preliminary survey and provisional choice, he should acquire a more intimate knowledge of the field chosen, including therewith an appreciation of its social significance. Those whose schooling ends here should attain some mastery of the technique involved. The field chosen will be for some as sharply defined as a specific trade; for others, it will be but the preliminary choice of a wider domain within which a narrower choice will later be made.

These considerations, reenforced by others, imply, in the judgment of this commission, a redivision of the period devoted to elementary and secondary education. The eight years heretofore given to elementary education have not, as a rule, been effectively utilized. The last two of these years in particular have not been well adapted to the needs of the adolescent. Many pupils lose interest and either drop out of school altogether or form habits of dawdling, to the serious injury of subsequent work. We believe that much of the difficulty will be removed by a new type of secondary education beginning at about 12 or 13. Furthermore, the period of four years now allotted to the high school is too short a time in which to accomplish the work above outlined.

We, therefore, recommend a reorganization of the school system whereby the first six years shall be devoted to elementary education designed to meet the needs of pupils of approximately 6 to 12 years of age; and the second six years to secondary education designed to meet the needs of pupils of approximately 12 to 18 years of age.

XI. DIVISION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION INTO JUNIOR AND SENIOR PERIODS

The six years to be devoted to secondary education may well be divided into two periods which may be designated as the junior and senior periods. In the junior period emphasis should be placed upon the attempt to help the pupil to explore his own aptitudes and to make at least provisional choice of the kinds of work to which he will devote himself. In the senior period emphasis should be given to training in the fields thus chosen. This distinction lies at the basis of the organization of junior and senior high schools.

[1] The term "curriculum" is used by this commission to designate a systematic arrangement of subjects, and courses in those subjects, both required and elective, extending through two or more years and designed for a group of pupils whose common aims and probable careers may properly differentiate a considerable part of their work from that of other groups in the school

In the junior high school there should be the gradual introduction of departmental instruction, some choice of subjects under guidance, promotion by subjects, prevocational courses, and a social organization that calls forth initiative and develops the sense of personal responsibility for the welfare of the group.

In the senior high school a definite curriculum organization should be provided by means of which each pupil may take work systematically planned with reference to his needs as an individual and as a member of society. The senior high school should be characterized by a rapidly developing social consciousness and by an aptitude of self-reliance based upon clearly perceived objectives.

Under ordinary circumstances the junior and senior periods should each be three years in length so as to realize their distinctive purposes. In sparsely settled communities where a senior high school can not be maintained effectively, the junior high school may well be four years in length, so that the pupils may attend school nearer to their homes for one more year.

The commission is not unmindful of the desirability, when funds permit, of extending secondary education under local auspices so as to include the first two years of work usually offered in colleges, and constituting what is known as the junior college, but it has seemed unwise for the commission to attempt to outline the work of this new unit.

XII. ARTICULATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION WITH ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

Admission to high school is now, as a rule, based upon the completion of a prescribed amount of academic work. As a result many over-age pupils either leave school altogether or are retained in the elementary school when they are no longer deriving much benefit from its instruction. Should a similar conception of the articulation of the two schools continue after the elementary program has been shortened to six years, similar bad results will persist. Experience in certain school systems, however, shows that the secondary school can provide special instruction for over-age pupils more successfully than the elementary school can. *Consequently we recommend that secondary schools admit, and provide suitable instruction for, all pupils who are in any respect so mature that they would derive more benefit from the secondary school than from the elementary school.*

XIII. ARTICULATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION WITH SECONDARY EDUCATION

In view of the important role of secondary education in achieving the objectives essential in American life, it follows that higher institutions of learning are not justified in maintaining entrance require-

ments and examinations of a character that handicap the secondary school in discharging its proper functions in a democracy.

As stated in Section XII of this report, the secondary school should admit all pupils who would derive greater benefit from the secondary than from the elementary school. With the demand of democratic society for extended liberal and vocational education for an ever-increasing number of persons, the higher institutions of learning, taken as a whole, are under a similar obligation with reference to those whose needs are no longer met by the secondary school and are disposed to continue their education. The conception that higher education should be limited to the few is destined to disappear in the interests of democracy.

The tradition that a particular type of education, and that exclusively nonvocational in character, is the only acceptable preparation for advanced education, either liberal or vocational, must therefore give way to a scientific evaluation of all types of secondary education as preparation for continued study. This broader conception need not involve any curtailment of opportunities for those who early manifest academic interest to pursue the work adapted to their needs. It does, however, mean that pupils who, during the secondary period, devote a considerable time to courses having vocational content should be permitted to pursue whatever form of higher education, either liberal or vocational, they are able to undertake with profit to themselves and to society.

XIV. RECOGNITION OF THE OBJECTIVES IN PLANNING CURRICULUMS

No curriculum in the secondary school can be regarded as satisfactory unless it gives due attention to each of the objectives of education outlined herein.

Health, as an objective, makes imperative an adequate time assignment for physical training and requires science courses properly focused upon personal and community hygiene, the principles of sanitation, and their applications. Command of fundamental processes necessitates thorough courses in the English language as a means of taking in and giving forth ideas. Worthy home-membership calls for the redirection of much of the work in literature, art, and the social studies. For girls it necessitates adequate courses in household arts. Citizenship demands that the social studies be given a prominent place. Vocation as an objective requires that many pupils devote much of their time to specific preparation for a definite trade or occupation, and that some pursue studies that serve as a basis for advanced work in higher institutions. The worthy use of leisure calls for courses in literature, art, music, and science so taught

as to develop appreciation. It necessitates also a margin of free electives to be chosen on the basis of personal avocational interests.

Due recognition of these objectives will provide the elements of distribution and concentration which are recognized as essential for a well-balanced and effective education.

XV. THE SPECIALIZING AND UNIFYING FUNCTIONS OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

1. *Their significance.*—The ideal of a democracy, as set forth in Section II of this report, involves, on the one hand, specialization whereby individuals and groups of individuals may become effective in the various vocations and other fields of human endeavor, and, on the other hand, unification whereby the members of that democracy may obtain those common ideas, common ideals, and common modes of thought, feeling, and action that make for cooperation, social cohesion, and social solidarity.

Without effective specialization on the part of groups of individuals there can be no progress. Without unification in a democracy there can be no worthy community life and no concerted action for necessary social ends. Increasing specialization emphasizes the need for unification, without which a democracy is a prey to enemies at home and abroad.

2. *The specializing function.*—Secondary education in the past has met the needs of only a few groups. The growing recognition that progress in our American democracy depends in no small measure upon adequate provision for specialization in many fields is the chief cause leading to the present reorganization of secondary education. Only through attention to the needs of various groups of individuals as shown by aptitudes, abilities, and aspirations can the secondary school secure from each pupil his best efforts. The school must capitalize the dominant interest that each boy and girl has at the time and direct that interest as wisely as possible. This is the surest method by which hard and effective work may be obtained from each pupil.

Specialization demands the following provisions in secondary education:

(*a*) *A wide range of subjects.*—In order to test and develop the many important capacities and interests found in pupils of secondary-school age, the school should provide as wide a range of subjects as it can offer effectively.

(*b*) *Exploration and guidance.*—Especially in the junior high school the pupil should have a variety of experience and contacts in order that he may explore his own capacities and aptitudes. Through a system of educational supervision or guidance he should

be helped to determine his education and his vocation. These decisions should not be imposed upon him by others.

(c) *Adaptation of content and methods.*—The content and teaching methods of every study should be adapted to the capacities, interests, and needs of the pupils concerned. In certain studies these factors may differ widely for various groups of pupils, e. g., chemistry should emphasize different phases in agricultural, commercial, industrial, and household-arts curriculums.

(d) *Flexibility of organization and administration.*—Flexibility should be secured by "election" of studies or curriculum, promotion by subjects from the beginning of the junior high school, possible transfer from curriculum to curriculum, provision for maximum and minimum assignments for pupils of greater and less ability, and, under certain conditions, for the rapid or slow progress of such pupils.

(e) *Differentiated curriculums.*—The work of the senior high school should be organized into differentiated curriculums. The range of such curriculums should be as wide as the school can offer effectively. The basis of differentiation should be, in the broad sense of the term, vocational, thus justifying the names commonly given, such as agricultural, business, clerical, industrial, fine-arts, and household-arts curriculums. Provisions should be made also for those having distinctively academic interests and needs. The conclusion that the work of the senior high school should be organized on the basis of curriculums does not imply that every study should be different in the various curriculums. Nor does it imply that every study should be determined by the dominant element of that curriculum. Indeed any such practice would ignore other objectives of education just as important as that of vocational efficiency.

3. *The unifying function.*—In some countries a common heredity, a strongly centralized government, and an established religion contribute to social solidarity. In America, racial stocks are widely diversified, various forms of social heredity come into conflict, differing religious beliefs do not always make for unification, and the members of different vocations often fail to recognize the interests that they have in common with others. The school is the one agency that may be controlled definitely and consciously by our democracy for the purpose of unifying its people. In this process the secondary school must play an important part because the elementary school with its immature pupils can not alone develop the common knowledge, common ideals, and common interests essential to American democracy. Furthermore, children of immigrant parents attend the secondary school in large and increasing numbers; secondary education comes at a stage in the development of boys and girls when social interests

develop rapidly; and from the secondary school the majority of pupils pass directly into participation in the activities of our society.

The unifying function calls for the following provisions in secondary education:

(*a*) Studies of direct value for this purpose, especially the social studies and the mother tongue, with its literature.

(*b*) The social mingling of pupils through the organization and administration of the school.

(*c*) The participation of pupils in common activities in which they should have a large measure of responsibility, such as athletic games, social activities, and the government of the school.

4. *Specialization and unification as supplementary functions.*— With increasing specialization in any society comes a corresponding necessity for increased attention to unification. So in the secondary school, increased attention to specialization calls for more purposeful plans for unification. When there was but little differentiation in the work within the secondary school, and the pupils in attendance were less diversified as to their heredity and interests, social unification in the full sense of the term could not take place.

The supplementary character of these functions has direct bearing upon the subjects to be taken by secondary-school pupils. To this end the secondary school should provide the following groups of studies:

(*a*) *Constants*, to be taken by all or nearly all pupils. These should be determined mainly by the objectives of health, command of fundamental processes, worthy home-membership, citizenship, and ethical character.

(*b*) *Curriculum variables*, peculiar to a curriculum or to a group of related curriculums. These should be determined for the most part by vocational needs, including, as they frequently do, preparation for advanced study in special fields.

(*c*) *Free electives*, to be taken by pupils in accordance with individual aptitudes or special interests, generally of a nonvocational nature. These are significant, especially in preparation for the worthy use of leisure.

The constants should contribute definitely to unification, the curriculum variables to specialization, and the free electives to either or both of these functions.

In the seventh year, that is the first year of the junior high school, the pupil should not be required to choose at the outset the field to which he will devote himself. For those who do not at this time have a definite purpose, opportunity should be given to gain some experience with several significant types of work, such as some form of industrial arts, gardening or other agricultural activity, typewriting or problems drawn from business, household arts for girls, and for at least a part of the pupils some work in a foreign language.

It may be found feasible to organize several such subjects or projects into short units and to arrange the schedule so that every pupil may take several of them. The work thus offered may and should be of real educational value, in addition to its exploratory value.

In the two following years of the junior high school, some pupils should continue this trying-out process, while others may well devote one-fourth to one-half of their time to curriculum variables. Pupils who will probably enter industry at the end of the ninth grade may well give as much as two-thirds of their time to vocational preparation, but they must not be permitted to neglect preparation for citizenship and the worthy use of leisure.

In the senior high school the relative proportion of the three groups of subjects will vary with the curriculum. Pupils who are to enter a gainful occupation before the completion of the senior high school may well devote a large proportion of their time to the curriculum variables, especially during their last year in school.

In brief, the greater the time allowed for curriculum variables, the more purposeful should be the time devoted to the constants in order that the school may be effective as an agency of unification. Above all, the greater the differentiation in studies, the more important becomes the social mingling of pupils pursuing different curriculums.

The supplementary character of the specializing and unifying functions has a direct bearing also upon the type of high school best suited to the needs of democratic society, as discussed in the next section.

XVI. THE COMPREHENSIVE HIGH SCHOOL AS THE STANDARD SECONDARY SCHOOL

The comprehensive (sometimes called composite, or cosmopolitan) high school, embracing all curriculums in one unified organization, should remain the standard type of secondary school in the United States.

Junior high schools must be of the comprehensive type, whatever policy be adopted for the senior high schools, since one of the primary purposes of the junior high school is to assist the pupil through a wide variety of contacts and experiences to obtain a basis for intelligent choice of his educational and vocational career. In the judgment of the commission, senior high schools and four-year high schools of the older organizations should, as a rule, be of the comprehensive type for the following reasons:

1. *For effectiveness of vocational education.*—When effectively organized and administered (see pp. 27 to 28) the comprehensive high school can make differentiated education of greater value to the individual and to society, for such value depends largely upon the extent to which the individual pursues the curriculum best suited

to his needs. This factor is of prime importance, although frequently ignored in discussions regarding the effectiveness of vocational and other types of differentiated education.

In a system of special-type schools many influences interfere with the wise choice of curriculum. Thus many pupils choose the high school nearest to their homes, or the school to which their friends have gone or are going, or the school that provides the most attractive social life or has the best athletic teams. Still others are unwisely influenced by the notions of neighbors and friends of the family. After entering a special-type school, many pupils drop out because the work is not adapted to their needs, while comparatively few transfer to another school.

In a comprehensive school the influences interfering with a wise choice of curriculum may be reduced to a minimum. When an unwise choice has been made the pupil may be greatly aided in discovering a curriculum better adapted to his needs because he can see other work in the school, talk with school companions, and confer with teachers who are able to give him expert advice regarding such curriculums. When such a pupil has found a curriculum better adapted to his needs, he can be transferred to it without severance of school relationships and, what seems to him, the sacrifice of school loyalty.

Moreover, pupils in comprehensive schools have contacts valuable to them vocationally, since people in every vocation must be able to deal intelligently with those in other vocations, and employers and employees must be able to understand one another and recognize common interests. Similarly, teachers in comprehensive schools have a better opportunity to observe other curriculums and are thereby better able to advise pupils intelligently.

Summarizing under this head, the well-organized comprehensive school can make differentiated education of greater value than can the special-type school, because it aids in a wise choice of curriculum, assists in readjustments when such are desirable, and provides for wider contacts essential to true success in every vocation.

2. *For unification.*—When administered by a principal who himself recognizes the social value of all types of secondary education and inspires a broad spirit of democracy among teachers and pupils, the comprehensive high school is a better instrument for unification. Through friendships formed with pupils pursuing other curriculums and having vocational and educational goals widely different from their own, the pupils realize that the interests which they hold in common with others are, after all, far more important than the differences that would tend to make them antagonistic to others. Through school assemblies and organizations they acquire common ideas. Through group activities they secure training in cooperation. Through loyalty to a school which includes many groups they are

prepared for loyalty to State and Nation. In short, the comprehensive school is the prototype of a democracy in which various groups must have a degree of self-consciousness as groups and yet be federated into a larger whole through the recognition of common interests and ideals. Life in such a school is a natural and valuable preparation for life in a democracy.

3. *For objectives other than vocation.*—A comprehensive high school can provide much more effectively for health education, education for the worthy use of leisure, and home-making education than a number of smaller special-type schools can.

The most effective health education requires adequate equipment and instructors competent to diagnose health needs and direct health activities. Expenses and difficulties of duplication of such facilities in every smaller special-type school are almost prohibitive. Preparation for the worthy use of leisure is best achieved when there is a wide variety of activities from which pupils may select, such as arts and crafts clubs, literary and debating socities, and musical organizations. All of these require for their success enthusiastic leadership such as can best be secured from a large faculty. Girls in all curriculums should have the advantages of work in household arts under efficient directors and with adequate equipment. Such conditions are most readily provided in the comprehensive school where there is a strong department of household arts.

With the establishment of a special-type high school it frequently happens that various important phases of education are neglected or minimized in the other schools of that system.

4. *For accessibility.*—In cities large enough to require more than one high school it is desirable to have each school so located as to serve a particular section of the city, thereby reducing the expense and loss of time involved in travel on the part of pupils. The proximity of the school to the homes results also in greater interest in education on the part of pupils and parents, and consequently increases the drawing and holding power of the school.

5. *Adaptation to local needs.*—In recommending the comprehensive high school as the standard secondary school the commission recognizes that in large cities where two or more high schools are needed it is not always possible to provide every curriculum in each high school, such a practice being precluded by the fact that certain curriculums would thereby enroll in the several schools too few pupils to permit economical organization and administration. In such cases a few curriculums may well appear in selected comprehensive schools or even in a single school only, while other curriculums appear in every school.

The commission also recognizes the impracticability of offering every curriculum in every small rural high school. In such cases it

is desirable that a curriculum for which the number of pupils does not warrant such duplication should be offered in selected schools, and that pupils needing that curriculum should go to those schools. This plan is substantially the same as that recommended for the large city.

6. *Effective organization of curriculums in comprehensive high schools.*—Finally, the commission recognizes that in the past relatively ineffective instruction has been afforded in some comprehensive schools. This has been due in part to the fact that everywhere vocational education has been passing and is still passing through a period of experimentation. The commission believes, however, that the most serious defect in vocational education in the comprehensive high school has been due to a lack of proper organization and administration. Effective vocational education can not be secured when administered like so many accidental groupings of subjects. To remedy this situation the commission recommends that each curriculum, or group of closely related curriculums, in the large comprehensive high school be placed under the supervision of a director whose task it shall be to organize that curriculum and maintain its efficiency. The curriculum directors must work under the general direction of the principal, who must be the coordinator of all the activities of the school. Especially is it necessary that each director shall be selected with the same care that would be exercised in choosing the principal of a special-type school enrolling as many pupils as are enrolled in the curriculum or curriculums under his direction. In medium-sized high schools unable to employ directors for the various curriculums, the teachers should be organized into committees to consider the problems of the various curriculums, all working under the direction of the principal.

Unless the various curriculums are effectively organized and administered, and unless the democratic spirit pervades the school, the comprehensive high school is in danger of failure; with these factors present, it has every promise of success.

XVII. RECOGNITION OF THE OBJECTIVES IN ORGANIZING THE SCHOOL

The objectives must determine the organization, or else the organization will determine the objectives. If the only basis upon which a high school is organized is that of the subjects of study, each department being devoted to some particular subject, there will result an over-valuation of the importance of subjects as such, and the tendency will be for each teacher to regard his function as merely that of leading the pupils to master a particular subject, rather than that of using the subjects of study and the activities of the school as means for achieving the objectives of education. The

departmental organization is desirable but needs to be supplemented. The two following methods are suggested:

(A) *The Principal's Council.*

The principal may select from his teachers a council, each member of which shall be charged with the responsibility of studying the activities of the school with reference to a specific objective. Plans for realizing these objectives should be discussed by the principal and the council. Without impairing in any way the ultimate responsibility of the principal, it will, as a rule, increase the efficiency of the school if the principal encourages initiative on the part of these council members and delegates to them such responsibilities as he finds they can discharge. The members of such a council and their duties are suggested as follows:

Health director.—This council member should seek to ascertain whether the health needs of the pupils are adequately met. For this purpose he should consider the ventilation and sanitation of the building, the provisions for lunch, the posture of pupils, the amount of home work required, the provisions for physical training, and the effects of athletics. He should find out whether the pupils are having excessive social activities outside of school, and devise means for gaining the cooperation of parents in the proper regulation of work and recreation. He may well see whether the teaching of biology is properly focused upon hygiene and sanitation.

Citizenship director.—The citizenship director should determine whether the pupils are developing initiative and the sense of personal responsibility. He should foster civic-mindedness through the school paper, debating society, and general school exercises, and give suggestions for directing the thinking of the pupils to significant problems of the day.

Curriculum directors.—As discussed in Section XVI of this report, for each important group of vocations for which the school offers a curriculum, or group of curriculums, there should be a director to study the needs of these vocations and find out the respects in which the graduates are succeeding or failing in meeting legitimate vocational demands. With the knowledge thus gained he should strive to improve the work offered by the school.

One of these curriculum directors should have charge of preparation for colleges and normal schools. He should obtain the records of graduates attending those schools and find out the strong and weak points in their preparation. He will advise with pupils intending to enter these institutions as to the work that they should take in the high school.

Director of vocational and educational guidance.—This member of the council should collect data regarding various vocational and edu-

cational opportunities and the qualifications needed. If the school is small, he may help individual pupils in acquiring an intelligent attitude toward the choice of a vocation or of a higher education; but if the school is large, he must train others who can know the pupils more intimately, to assist in this service, always holding himself ready to give advice.

Director of preparation for leisure.—This council member should, so far as possible, see that the pupils are developing interests that will assist them in later life to use their leisure wisely. He should consider especially the musical organizations, the school library, the art clubs and classes, and the various ways in which pupils are spending their leisure.

The large school may have need for additional directors to deal with other vital phases of education.

(B) *By Committees.*

The principal may appoint committees of teachers each of which would be charged with duties similar to those described. An advantage of the committee plan is that a larger number of teachers will be stimulated to acquire a broad educational point of view.

Theoretically, it is possible for the principal himself to supervise the teaching and direct all the activities of the school. Practically, however, the majority of administrators tend to become absorbed in a few aspects of education. In fact, intensive creative work along any one line on the part of the principal leads naturally to at least a temporary neglect of the other aspects of education. Consequently, either a principal's council or committees of teachers seem essential in order that none of the objectives may be neglected.

It is not intended that the council or the committees should in any way lessen the ultimate responsibility of the principal, but that by this means the cooperation of the entire teaching body may be secured and all the objectives held in view.

XVIII. SECONDARY EDUCATION ESSENTIAL FOR ALL YOUTH

To the extent to which the objectives outlined herein are adopted as the controlling aims of education, to that extent will it be recognized that an extended education for every boy and girl is essential to the welfare, and even to the existence, of democratic society. The significance of these objectives is becoming more and more apparent under modern conditions in our democracy. These conditions grow out of increased knowledge of science with its rapidly extending applications to all the affairs of life, keener competition with its attendant dangers, closer contacts of peoples of varied racial and religious types, and greater assertiveness of all men and women in the control of their own destinies. These and many other tendencies

increase the significance of health, worthy home-membership, vocation, citizenship, the worthy use of leisure, and ethical character.

Each of these objectives requires for its realization not only the training and habit formation that the child may secure, but also the intelligence and efficiency that can not be developed before adolescence. In fact, their realization calls for the full period allotted to both the junior and senior high schools.

Consequently, this commission holds that education should be so reorganized that every normal boy and girl will be encouraged to remain in school to the age of 18, on full time if possible, otherwise on part time.

XIX. PART-TIME SCHOOLING AS A COMPULSORY MINIMUM REQUIREMENT

As stated in Section I of this report, only one American youth in about three reaches the first year of the four-year high school, and only one in about nine remains in school to the end of the high-school course. This condition is, in the last analysis, due principally to four causes: First, the limited range of instruction commonly offered by secondary schools; second, the failure on the part of the school adequately to demonstrate to young people and their parents the value of the education offered; third, the lure of employment, together with the desire for increased economic independence on the part of young persons; and fourth, economic pressure in the family, real or imagined.

The first of these causes is rapidly disappearing through the introduction of curriculums with rich vocational content. The second may be removed by subordinating deferred values and reorganizing instruction so as to make the values more evident to the learner, as discussed in Sections VIII and IX. The third may be diminished in its effect by greater virility in school work. Economic pressure will continue until social conditions can be materially improved.

In the meantime, a sound national policy dictates the urgent need for legislation whereby all young persons, whether employed or not, shall be required to attend school not less than eight hours in each week that schools are in session until they reach the age of 18.

Attendance for eight hours in each week will make possible important progress not only in vocational efficiency but also in the promotion of health, preparation for worthy home-membership, civic intelligence and efficiency, the better utilization of leisure, and ethical development. All these objectives are evidently as important for the young worker as for those who remain in full-time attendance at school.

The value of part-time instruction, if properly organized, is out of all proportion to the time involved, because it can utilize as a basis

the new experiences of the young worker and his new social and civic contacts. Moreover, continued attendance at school will afford an intellectual stimulus too often lacking to these young persons under the modern subdivision of labor.

Consequently, this commission recommends the enactment of legislation whereby all young persons up to the age of 18, whether employed or not, shall be required to attend the secondary school not less than eight hours in each week that the schools are in session.

In some States it may be held to be impracticable at the outset to require such part-time attendance beyond the age of 16 or 17, but the commission holds that the imperative needs of American democracy can not be met until the period is extended to 18.

To make this part-time schooling effective it will be necessary to adapt it specifically to the needs of the pupils concerned. Moreover, teachers must be trained for this new type of work. Without such provisions there is great danger of failure and a consequent reaction against this most valuable extension of secondary education.

In view of the importance of developing a sense of common interests and social solidarity on the part of the young worker and those of his fellows who are continuing in full-time attendance at school, it appears to this commission that this part-time education should be conducted in the comprehensive secondary school rather than in separate continuation schools, as is the custom in less democratic societies. By this plan the part-time students and the full-time students may share in the use of the assembly hall, gymnasium, and other equipment provided for all. This plan has the added advantage that the enrollment of all pupils may be continuous in the secondary school, thus furthering employment supervision on the one hand and making easier a return to full-time attendance whenever the lure of industry or the improvement of economic conditions in the family makes such a return inviting and feasible.

The part-time attendance for eight hours a week of all persons between 14 and 18 who are not now in school will require a large increase in the teaching force in secondary schools. No other single piece of educational legislation could, however, do more to raise the level of intelligence and efficiency and to insure the welfare of democracy.

XX. CONCLUSION

In concluding this report on the cardinal principles of secondary education the commission would call attention to its 17 other reports in which the principles herein set forth are applied to the various aspects of secondary education. The reports now available are listed on the last page of this bulletin, and others are nearly ready for publication. One report will consider in detail the application of these

principles to the organization and administration of secondary schools. Thirteen reports deal with the aims, methods, and content of the various subjects of study and curriculums in the light of these principles. Three others discuss vocational guidance, physical education, and the moral values that should be derived from secondary-school organization and instruction.

It is becoming increasingly apparent that the problems of secondary education merit much more serious attention than they have received heretofore. The study of the best methods for adapting secondary education to the needs of modern democratic life is but begun. The physical, intellectual, emotional, and ethical characteristics of young people are still but vaguely comprehended. Such knowledge of social needs and educational theory and practice as is already available has been seriously studied by comparatively few administrators and teachers. Progress will depend very largely upon adequate professional training of teachers both before and after entering upon service. Plans must be adopted for pooling the results of successful experimentation on the part of individual teachers. To make the reorganization effective, competent supervision and constructive leadership must be provided in the various fields of secondary education.

It is the firm belief of this commission that secondary education in the United States must aim at nothing less than complete and worthy living for all youth, and that therefore the objectives described herein must find place in the education of every boy and girl.

Finally, in the process of translating into daily practice the cardinal principles herein set forth, the secondary school teachers of the United States must themselves strive to explore the inner meaning of the great democratic movement now struggling for supremacy. The doctrine that each individual has a right to the opportunity to develop the best that is in him is reinforced by the belief in the potential, and perchance unique, worth of the individual. The task of education, as of life, is therefore to call forth that potential worth.

While seeking to evoke the distinctive excellencies of individuals and groups of individuals, the secondary school must be equally zealous to develop those common ideas, common ideals, and common modes of thought, feeling, and action, whereby America, through a rich, unified, common life, may render her truest service to a world seeking for democracy among men and nations.

☆ U. S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE 1962 O-685210

END